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ABSTRACT

The nine articles in this monograph discuss current issues related to increasing awareness of caring work and cross-cultural communication. The two main themes are: the basis of caring work in the first five articles, and fostering cultural awareness in the last four. "Foundations of Prevocational and Vocational Education in Finland" (Johanna Lasonen, Hannele Rousi) provides an overview of the progress of Finnish vocational education for social work. "Development Challenges to Vocational Social Service Education in Finland" (Ulla Mutka, Hannele Rousi) outlines a broad sociopolitical perspective as a basis for vocational social work education. "Qualifications of Caregivers" (Johanna Lasonen, Susan Shome, Penny Burge) discusses the nature of female-dominated service and caring work and presents a critical view on general education goals. "Finnish Comprehensive Vocational Institute Teachers' Gender-Role Attitudes" (Johanna Lasonen, Penny Burge, Curtis Finch) provides survey results. "Interaction Between Work and Family Roles" (Penny Burge) describes the current focus of home economics curriculum efforts in the United States. "Developing Cultural Awareness through International Collaboration in Vocational Teacher Education" (Curtis Finch, Johanna Lasonen) examines the basis of international education and presents a model that integrates individual and social variables of cross-cultural communication. "Developing Cultural Awareness" (Steven Culver) deals with pedagogical functions of writing in broadening students' knowledge of subject matter and in developing cultural awareness. "Crosscultural Awareness" (Ulla Mutka, Anneli Niikko, Hannele Rousi) introduces the development project implemented in the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyvaskyla (VTECJ). "Internationalization" (Hannele Rousi) summarizes the goals and the theoretical and practical principles of the internationalization process of vocational teacher education in the VTECJ. Each article contains references. (YLB)

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Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8

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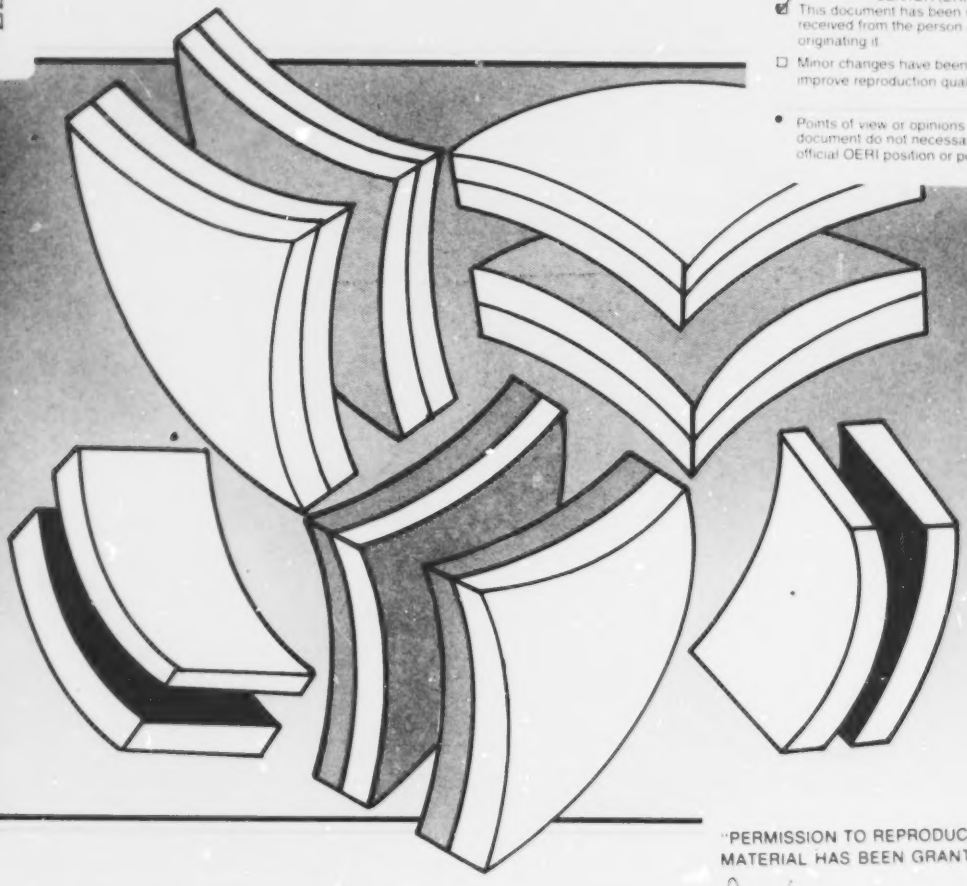

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ISSUES OF HUMAN CARING AND CULTURAL AWARENESS IN VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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ISSUES OF HUMAN CARING AND CULTURAL AWARENESS IN VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Johanna Lasonen
Hannele Rousi (Eds.)

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ABSTRACT

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This monograph comprises nine articles which discuss current issues related to increasing awareness of caring work and cross-cultural communication. These issues have been consistently dealt with during the last five years in the Vocational Teacher Education College. This publication has two main themes: (1) *the basis of caring work*, with the first five articles, and (2) *fostering cultural awareness*, with the last four articles.

The basis of caring work is approached from various angles. The first article (by Johanna Lasonen and Hannele Rousi) provides an overview of the progress of Finnish vocational education for social work from two aspects: vocational-liberal education and efficiency-oriented occupational training. The changes in economic and occupational structures have also shaped vocational education. In the second article, Ulla Mutka and Hannele Rousi outline a broad sociopolitical perspective as a basis for vocational social work education in Finland and the different phases of the development of education for social work. The third article (by Johanna Lasonen, Penny Burge and Susan Shome) discusses the nature of female-dominated service and caring work, and presents a critical view on general education goals. The traditional way of defining such terms as skill, competency and qualification is questioned in the light of the nature of caring work. Also cases of office work, nursing science and social work are presented. The next article (by Johanna Lasonen, Penny Burge and Curtis Finch) provides results of the survey of Finnish vocational school teachers' gender-role attitudes. Statistical analyses show to what extent variance in gender-role attitudes was accounted for by personal and professional characteristics. Traditional and modern attitudes are compared among the groups of vocational teachers. In the fifth and last article of this theme section Penny Burge describes the current focus of home economics curriculum efforts in the United States. The overall education goals are discussed in relation to the evolution of family, and the economic and social conditions.

Development of cultural awareness through international collaboration and pedagogical writing in vocational teacher education constitute an integrated whole of the latter section. In their article, Curtis Finch and Johanna Lasonen examine the basis of international education in vocational teacher education. A model, which integrates individual and social variables of cross-cultural communication, and a case of establishing

a cross-cultural linkage program are presented. The article by Steven Culver is about pedagogical functions of writing in broadening students' knowledge of subject matter and in developing cultural awareness. He also discusses functions of writing in providing evidence about what occurs during educational processes. The next article (by Ulla Mutka, Anneli Niikko and Hannele Rousi) continues the theme of cross-cultural awareness introducing the development project implemented in the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä. In the last article Hannele Rousi summarizes the goals and the theoretical and practical principles of the internationalization process of vocational teacher education in the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä. Internationalization means pedagogical development of teacher education, the objective of which is to utilize multiculturalism in a positive fashion.

PREFACE

The Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä has traditionally been connected to female-dominated occupations in areas such as fashion and beauty, clothing, hotel and catering, food and nutrition, cleaning, cosmetology, health care and social work.

The missions of the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä are as follows:

- to provide pre-service, in-service and upgrading education for teachers by developing flexible educational systems
- to function as a professional and pedagogical centre for vocational teachers' professional development
- to conduct research which contributes to the development of vocational education.

In professional and pedagogical development the college's activities are guided by the principles of client-orientation, learner autonomy and co-operative learning.

The issues discussed in this monograph publication focus on women's work. This was highlighted as a topic on the 30th anniversary of the Vocational Teacher Education College in 1993.

The Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä had the pleasure of receiving visitors from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (VPI+SU), College of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education. Professors Nevin Frantz, Curtis Finch, Penny Burge and June Schmidt visited the College in 1991, 1992 and 1993. Their professional contribution to the College has been extremely valuable in our process of internationalization.

Dr. Johanna Lasonen, a former teacher in the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä, facilitated in establishing the professional linkage between the Colleges after her graduation from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

This report is based on the authors' areas of expertise and interests in the two institutions. Its purpose is to deepen the discussion on the topics of caring services and crosscultural awareness. We hope that this publication could promote co-operation and further networking between the two Colleges in the future.

We wish to thank Dr. Sauli Takala and Mr. Tuomo Suontausta for their vital contribution at the translation and proof-reading stages of this publication.

Jyväskylä, April 1994

Heikki Lyytinen
Principal

Hannele Rousi
Program Leader

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FOUNDATIONS OF PREVOCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN FINLAND

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ABSTRACT

Lasonen, J. & Rousi, H. 1994. Foundations of prevocational and vocational education in Finland. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

Finnish vocational education has followed two kinds of schooling policies: vocational-liberal education and efficiency-oriented occupational training. Prevocational education has aimed to foster children's harmonious personality development by integrating handicraft and practical subjects teaching in preprimary and comprehensive school curricula. Formal vocational education at the secondary and adult education levels has been directed to contribute to the economic development. The experimental project of polytechnic education is going on in all parts of Finland. The experimental reform of higher occupational education aims at integration and co-operation between vocational and academic education, and at providing new and more diversified options of studies to school-leavers.

Partly, due to the effective vocational education system, Finland's economic development has been mostly progressive since the Second World War. Efficiency in vocational education combined with demands of post-industrial worklife have also resulted in many problems, such as inflexibility. Finnish vocational education faces the future challenges of promoting the application of new pedagogical paradigms in the educational practice.

Keywords: Prevocational and vocational education, formal vocational training, adult education.

1 INTRODUCTION

The Finnish educational system is made up of the comprehensive school, post-compulsory general and vocational education, higher education and adult education (Figure 1, App. 1). The primary school is compulsory for the entire age group. Comprehensive schooling begins at the age of seven. Over half of six-year-olds attend voluntary preschool classes at day-care centres or comprehensive schools.

Post-comprehensive schooling comprises upper secondary and vocational education. Today over 50% of each age group of primary school-leavers continue their studies in three-year upper secondary schools. The upper secondary school refers to academic high school education and ends with a matriculation examination which gives a general eligibility for university studies. On certain conditions this eligibility can also be achieved by students graduated from vocational institutions (Ministry of Education 1993).

Vocational institutes admit students from both comprehensive and upper secondary schools. Three different levels of vocational qualifications are offered by vocational education, which also includes higher vocational education, equivalent to the non-university sector in some other countries.

Higher academic education and scientific postgraduate education include universities and art academies. Adult education has developed rapidly in the last few years and participation especially in different vocational programs has strongly increased.

Vocational education trends in Finland are approached from two aspects: prevocational education at the preprimary and comprehensive (kindergarten, primary and middle school) school levels, and formal vocational education at the secondary, post-secondary and the higher education levels.

The main goal of prevocational education through handicrafts and arts teaching has been to foster balanced personality growth and to promote positive values and attitude-development towards skills training, working life and national culture. Handicraft teaching has provided chances to train the pupil's eyes, hands, brain, mind and heart together. Enriching the use of hands combined with promotion of practical reasoning skills has been considered to promote a more effective utilization of the human brain. Hands can be seen as extensions of the brain. The most popular prevocational subjects have been woodwork, needlework and home economics.

Unlike the Greek and Roman nations, Teutonic and Finnish tribes and nations valued work as an honourable vocation for a free human being (Kyöstiö 1954). Households during the period of primary production were self-sufficient. As a result of the shift from self-sufficiency to specialization in production, the households started to buy and change their supplies and tools instead of making them themselves. Specialization in making certain tools and supplies led to the birth of vocations. Before any artisan and

vocational schools were established in Finland, there were a great number of tradesmen in various fields. The know-how was passed from fathers to sons and from mothers to daughters, ie. skills were acquired through apprenticeship. Artisan schools basically for townspeople were transformed into vocational schools at the end of the nineteenth century. The World Wars led to a boom in the heavy industries and to the establishment of vocational schools and sub-degree level institutes.

The trends in the policy guidelines of vocational education and training have turned from goal-oriented humanism to vision-oriented humanism in prevocational education and from efficiency-oriented training to vocational-liberal education in formal vocational training (Anttila 1991, Kivirauma 1990, Kyöstiö 1954, Mäenpää 1991, Peltonen 1991). Uno Cygnaeus (died in 1888), a Finnish pedagogue and internationally recognized as a philosopher of handiwork teaching, represented the goal-oriented perspective of education.

Uno Cygnaeus based his perspective of the handiwork teaching on the tradition of Finnish popular woodwork, "sloyd", which used to be a domestic spare-time activity (Bennett 1937, Kyöstiö 1954). Cygnaeus also applied Pestalozzi's and Fröbel's doctrines while developing work instruction. The function of work instruction was to motivate pupils, to foster coordination between the eye and the hand, to teach youngsters to understand and value manual work and Finnish culture, to support household economy, to develop dexterity, initiative, planfulness, attentiveness and diligence (Kyöstiö 1954, 1955).

Oiva Kyöstiö was an educator who played a prominent role in conceptualizing formal vocational training in the 1950s, which was the period when many vocational schools were set up. He got influences from a German educator, Kerschensteiner who was influenced by Dewey's thinking. According to Kyöstiö (1955), beside supporting national economy, vocational training should have a great educational value in the areas of attitudes and social education, by supporting self-esteem and self-realization.

Formal vocational education has traditionally had quite utilitarian goals in practice. Since the 1980s most vocational lines led to dead-ends without chances for further education. Vocational and academic schooling have been distinctly separated from each other. However, vocational students' numbers have increased, and their basic educational level has significantly improved during the past two decades. Today vocational and technical education curricula contain general education subjects, general vocational education subjects, specialized vocational training and work practice which are included in all vocational students' study programs. The entire age-cohort in Finland has access to study two other languages in addition to the Finnish language. In the 1990s, vocational education reforms in Finland are directed to integrate general and vocational schooling at the secondary level, and to develop occupational higher education by establishing occupational colleges.

2 PREVOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN FINLAND

Handiwork teaching has been unique and strong in Finland. This tradition has enriched the Finnish culture, especially concerning the arts and crafts, industrial production, architecture and environment shaping. Uno Cygnaeus, also the founder of Finnish primary school education, added handiwork teaching to the primary school curricula in the nineteenth century. Since the 1860s all Finnish citizens have studied handiwork during their compulsory school years.

Today handiwork is also taught in the kindergartens and preschools. Children, both girls and boys, are guided to have various experiences of touching raw materials and of making products in the areas of needlework, woodwork, metal work, horticulture and home economics. Children may also have opportunities to visit their parents' jobs.

The subjects studied in the comprehensive school (six years plus three years) are defined in the Comprehensive School Act and Decree. The Government decides the distribution of lesson hours between subjects. At the lower stage (grades one to six) handicraft is taught from two to four hours per week. The upper stage (grades seven to nine) curriculum includes the common core and elective subjects. In the seventh grade, both home economics and technical and textile work are taught three hours a week. In the eighth and ninth grades, elective subjects are technical work, textile work, home economics, agriculture, forestry and horticulture, and typing or keyboarding. Additionally, orientation to working life consists of a two-week period of assisting in work tasks at two different workplaces in the ninth grade. Prevocational subjects in the comprehensive school are taught by subject teachers who have graduated from the specializing teachers' training programs.

The pedagogical perspectives of teaching handiwork have been developed in the universities which provide handicraft teachers' training programs. The theories of handicraft teaching have been based on, among others, the tradition of the Finnish handiwork, cognitive psychology and theories of perception (Anttila 1991, Peltonen 1991, Tuomikoski 1991). Traditionally handiwork teaching has been based on the following arguments (Tuomikoski 1991):

- Handicraft learning advances step by step and inductively. General process of work and production become comprehensible for pupils. Analyzing concrete results and effects of actions promotes the development of reasoning skills. Empowerment through doing and thinking shows how persons are able to improve their environment and the world.
- Uniqueness of human beings can be strengthened by working with hands. Handicrafts learning makes persons get used to the intentional processes through deliberating upon the goals of action and to implement them.
- Human nature can be holistically fostered by doing handicrafts. Fragmentation of learning can be avoided by making a whole product.
- Processes of making things by hands enrich imagination development. Students are guided to make a mental image and idea of the result of a work and of the

- means to reach it at the beginning of the process. While progressing one can verify the accuracy of the original ideas.
- Working by hands develops positive self-esteem and meets the human demand for action.

From the point of view of educational goals and aims, the perspective of cognitive psychology in handiwork instruction refers to students' abilities to learn to form a schema for implementing situational actions. Social and motivational factors shape these schemes for actions. Students should learn to use mental images with which they can further define their thoughts and translate them into action schemes (Anttila 1991). The theory of handicraft instruction is based on perceiving logic. Students can learn to perceive certain project visions based on the logic necessary for handicraft actions. There are several kinds of logic in production: imitation logic, construction and composition logic, skill logic, product development logic etc. The goal of learning is to cope with a production event by taking into account preparation, situational analyses and factors for success. Students also have to learn to test and approve a product and to analyze its environmental effects (Peltonen 1991). The cognitive theory represents a subgroup of perceiving logic. Perceiving is based on a kind of a pattern or model. Therefore, the ideas of the cognitive theory are included in the theory of handiwork teaching.

3 FORMAL VOCATIONAL TRAINING

The organized guild system started formal vocational training in Finland in the seventeenth century (Kivirauma 1990). Skilled tradesmen were in great demand. Sunday schools, which were later called artisan schools, were established in the 1830s for the purposes of teaching basic skills and of controlling townspeople. Besides skills training, reading, writing, arithmetic and religion were taught in those schools. Apprentices and journeymen had to participate in the all-around education offered by artisan schools in the evenings and Sundays.

By 1800 the need for organized training had become evident. The first field to provide training was that of handicrafts. Spinning schools, though sporadic, were established for the purposes of textile industry in the 1750s (Kivirauma 1990, Kyöstiö 1955). One of the first fields to offer planned and continuous training, which has lasted until now, was seafaring. The Turku navigation school was founded in 1813. It was also in Turku where a commercial school was founded in 1839. After the launching of these pioneer projects, training was soon expanded in most vocational fields (Isosaari 1973, Nurmi 1984). For instance, the first agriculture and husbandry school was established in 1840, the medical service school in 1867, and the home economics school in 1891 (Nurmi 1984).

Vocational schools with many fields based on the occupational structure of the

Finnish society have been founded since 1900. Discussions of defining and grouping occupational fields started in the 1970s (Kivirauma 1990).

Vocational and technical training institutes providing diversified occupational fields and schooling chances became available for the rural population in the 1940s, when central comprehensive vocational schools were established in all parts of Finland. Industrial occupational areas were mostly represented in vocational and technical education from 1950 to 1980. Since 1980, half of the vocational education openings have been directed to service areas.

College-level (post-secondary) occupational training has had a higher status than school-level training. Especially the fields of technology, business and medical service have been valued greatly (Kivirauma 1990). Since 1950 one third of all vocational students have enrolled in college-level occupational schooling.

Up to the 1960s Finland was an agrarian-dominant country. Since then the structure has changed sharply: industry and services started to expand at the same time. More population has gone straight from primary production into services than in other Western Countries. Rapid economic growth in the 1980s has put pressure on the Finnish industry to develop high technology at the expense of basic industry. Training requirements and standards have increased, and the gap between the qualifications for blue- and white-collar occupations has narrowed.

As a result of expanded industrialization in the 1950s and 1960s, many vocational institutes were established side by side, but separately, with an increased number of the academic lower and upper secondary schools (Mäkinen 1991). The nine-year comprehensive school was introduced in the 1970s. The vocational education system was reformed in the 1980s and is continuing in the 1990s. Vocational education was coordinated with the upper-secondary (academic high school) level which follows the nine-year comprehensive school. The academic high school attracts students more than the vocational school. At present about 60% of the age cohort (sixteen-year-olds) choose the academic upper secondary school (Ministry of Education 1990). However, there are university study places only for about 30% of students who have passed the matriculation examination. The number of institutions providing vocational education in Finland is about 540.

Vocational studies are open to both comprehensive and upper secondary school-leavers. Student places are available for the whole adolescent age group, and a wide range of program options are offered in all parts of the country. Those who have got vocational certificates or diplomas have a number of options for further studies. Students having school-level certificates qualify for college level or higher vocational studies. Holders of college level or higher vocational diplomas can apply to universities as academic high school-leavers do. Universities selecting new students reserve admission quotas for applicants with vocational qualifications (National Board of Education 1991).

Finnish vocational education is mostly institutional, although practical training periods in working life are included in nearly all programs. Another characteristic is that

schools specialize in specific occupational sectors. Students are offered three levels of vocational qualifications: School-level certificates, college-level diplomas and higher vocational diplomas. School-level qualifications take 1-3 years, college-level 3-5 years and higher vocational qualifications 5-6 years to complete. Most college-level and higher education programs include a one-year practical training period.

College-level and higher education programs are regarded as a Finnish way to provide advanced vocational education outside universities. The Finnish vocational education institutions have been admitted to the continuously expanding, changing and developing programs of the European Community.

Since 1991 an experimentation of polytechnic, occupational colleges, has been started. The purpose of this experiment is to develop higher vocational qualifications and to raise the vocational and theoretical standards of education. Institutes with diverse occupational areas collaborate so that students can make up relevant study programs for themselves. The linkage programs between different institutes also were a piloting object. The experiment is also intended to produce models for permanent polytechnic and new vocational programs. These programs should be more practically and professionally oriented than the ones of academic degrees (Figure 2, App. 2). The integration of theory and practice means that all programs must include practical training at work places.

Despite the continuing development of vocational education there are some problems, which seem to be quite permanent in the present vocational education system in Finland. Mäenpää (1991) summarized the problems as follows:

- The demand for educated labour force cannot be met in all fields.
- The opportunities available for further education after the comprehensive and upper secondary schools do not match with young people's preferences.
- Too sharp distinctions exist between academic and vocational education.
- Vocational education is too much differentiated into separate fields.
- Too small units cause inefficiency.
- Administration has been too centralized.

Structural development of the vocational education in the near future will try to solve these problems in the following ways:

- The first task is to restructure Finnish vocational education during the 1990's. The twenty-six basic programs currently availabie cover education for nearly all occupations and professions (Figure 3, App. 3). The goal of this project is to construct large entities by combining existing lines by forming clusters of occupational areas. In this context, flexible transfer across different fields of education is also encouraged. The general aim is to give students fair credit for merits from different areas of education as well. Furthermore, the wish for shorter study times has led to more flexible educational arrangements.
- The second structural development project, which is going on, is based on the co-operation of upper secondary academic and vocational schools. The goal of this

reform is to provide students with more diversified options of st :dies. Students can choose more flexibly from the joint range of programs. They can complete a vocational certificate or diploma, or take academic high school courses, or choose a combination of academic and vocational programs.

- The third structural reform of Finnish vocational education refers to *Fachhochschule* -type institutions, polytechnic or occupational colleges. The experimentation of this project has been started in twenty-two polytechnics. The experiment is also intended to produce models for permanent occupational colleges through institutional co-operation. One or more vocational colleges form a polytechnic which offers study programs leading to a new kind of professional degree at the higher education (non-university) level. Several institutions try to search together for new kinds of advanced qualifications, which are based on the concept of practical knowledge.

These extensive experimental projects, which include vocational secondary and tertiary education, are challenging the scheme to develop specific vocational pedagogy. Students' learning process is a pedagogical foundation beyond the structural reforms. Pedagogical development is directed to the future demands. Structural and pedagogical, quantitative and qualitative reform together will contribute educational change better than either of them alone.

4 ADULT EDUCATION

In Finland it has been recently realized that the traditional distinction between general and vocational adult education is irrelevant. Vocational adult education provides opportunities for people to pursue systematic studies to guide an adult citizen's personal and professional life. Education must be lifelong - but it must not be for a vocation only. Human life cycle may include many careers and many changes.

As structural changes took place in the Finnish society, and automation and technical advances affected the nature of work, it was necessary to retrain the middle-aged and older workers in order to meet the needs of the labour market. Employment training traces back to the 1930s when courses were offered to unemployed women, young people and clerical workers. The aim of these courses was to improve the training opportunities for the unemployed and unskilled workers. The legislation on employment courses in 1965 and 1970 enabled the establishment of vocational adult education centres (Pohjonen 1991). These centres cater especially for mature students, but the institutions which provide basic vocational education for adolescents increasingly admit mature students as well.

Practice in vocational adult education has been guided by the principles of educational equality and continuous education. The main idea has been that basic training should also be available for those persons who had no access to vocational

education earlier in their lives. At the end of the 1980s such persons still accounted for 30% of the total adult population (Salminen 1991).

Kontiainen and Manninen (1992, 1-92) have presented a framework for adult education in which changes in social learning environment is considered as a significant factor.

The current Finnish social policy emphasizes the importance of adult education. Adult education is closely connected with the structures of working life and especially with the problem of unemployment. Adult education for the unemployed, in particular, has been increased and developed all the time. The objective of this education is to activate the unemployed to create jobs that would best match with their own abilities and thus to make them employ themselves.

Finnish adult education is currently accessible to a relatively large proportion of the population. Development has been significant. Whereas in 1980 some 24% of the workforce was engaged in professional training, the proportion ten years later has grown to 44% (Simpanen and Blomqvist 1992).

Adult students can enrol in the same vocational programs as adolescents. The programs adapted to the needs of mature students offer them educational opportunities which suit their current life situations, allowing them to integrate vocational training with their work (Panhelainen & Konttinen 1993).

Different flexible and distance-learning programs are increasingly popular. They give students many alternatives concerning methods, time and place. Students can organize their own personal study-programs and choose where and how they will study. They can decide how much they need to be involved in college courses, alternating with supervised self-study at home or on the job. The criteria for individual study plans are determined by the schools themselves. Because of increasing unemployment numbers, attention will be constantly given to the development of vocational adult education.

During the last four years, Finnish working life has gone through the most dramatic changes since the Second World War. Vocational adult education is under pressure with the unemployment rate of 20%. There are plenty of people who do not have any chance of a job for years. The only possibility is continuing adult education.

The statistics supplied by the International Labour Organisation of the United Nations show that in the three decades the proportion of the Finnish workforce engaged in academic and comparable professions in the fields of technology and other specialized areas has trebled. For Finland the rise is from 8.2 to 23.4 percent of workforce.

In many countries of western Europe the proportion during the same period has roughly doubled, and remained clearly smaller than in Scandinavia (Sulkunen 1992).

The Finnish challenge to the future adult education can be summarised as follows:

1) **Flexibility, creativity, and individuality.**

Continuous searching for alternative, flexible learning and teaching methods, matching the particular needs of mature students, is going on. The system of

flexible, competence-based examination and accreditation of prior learning has been developed. Apprenticeship training is gaining momentum and personal programs of learning are supported.

2) **Contextuality and process-evaluation.**

Mature students are required to complete only those courses for which they cannot show acceptable credit through previous studies or work experience. Mature student's studytime varies individually. Vocational studies are matched with the student's lifelong learning process. Process-evaluation is emphasized. Examinations should correspond to the required qualifications and other needs at different stages in life.

3) **Self-directiveness and responsibility for studies.**

Educational advice and guidance will be made more effective and students can buy their education services from the institutions which they find most interesting.

4) **Continuously changing vocational qualifications and the broad goal of vocational adult education.**

Continuing and multi-dimensional dialogue is a foundation of learning process in vocational adult education. Education also must have a broad vision on the major global issues as well as on the personal and local ones.

5) **Process of generalization and specialization.**

Holistic and serialistic approaches are applied at the same time in the education process. (On the other hand, students can concentrate on special themes and jobs related to their own occupational fields and interests but, on the other hand, process-orientation and situation-embeddness are the keywords of development). Education must be directed towards the future demands of adults. Various options are open to the adult students. Students make their personal study plans, and they will choose those options which best match with their own plans.

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APPENDIX 1

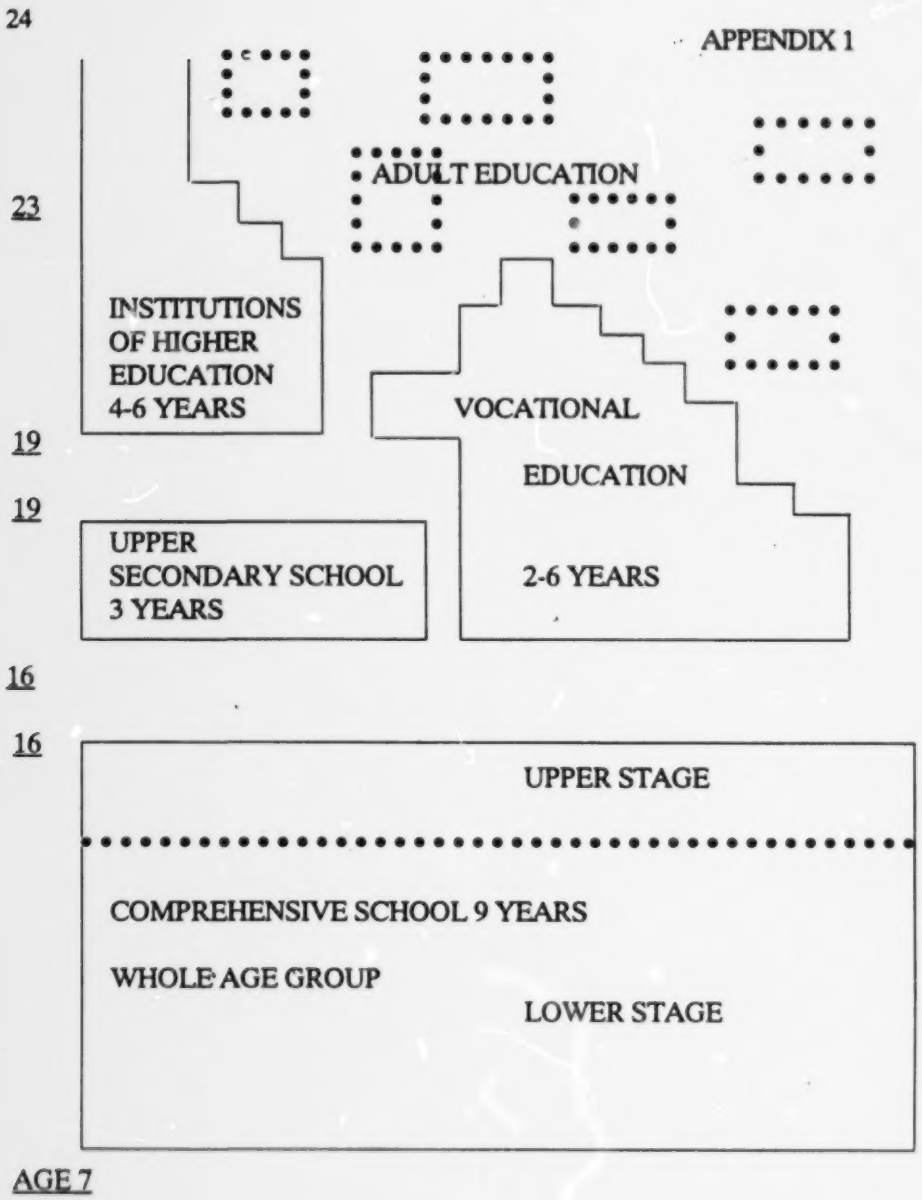

Figure 1. The Finnish education system (Ministry of Education, 1992)

APPENDIX 2

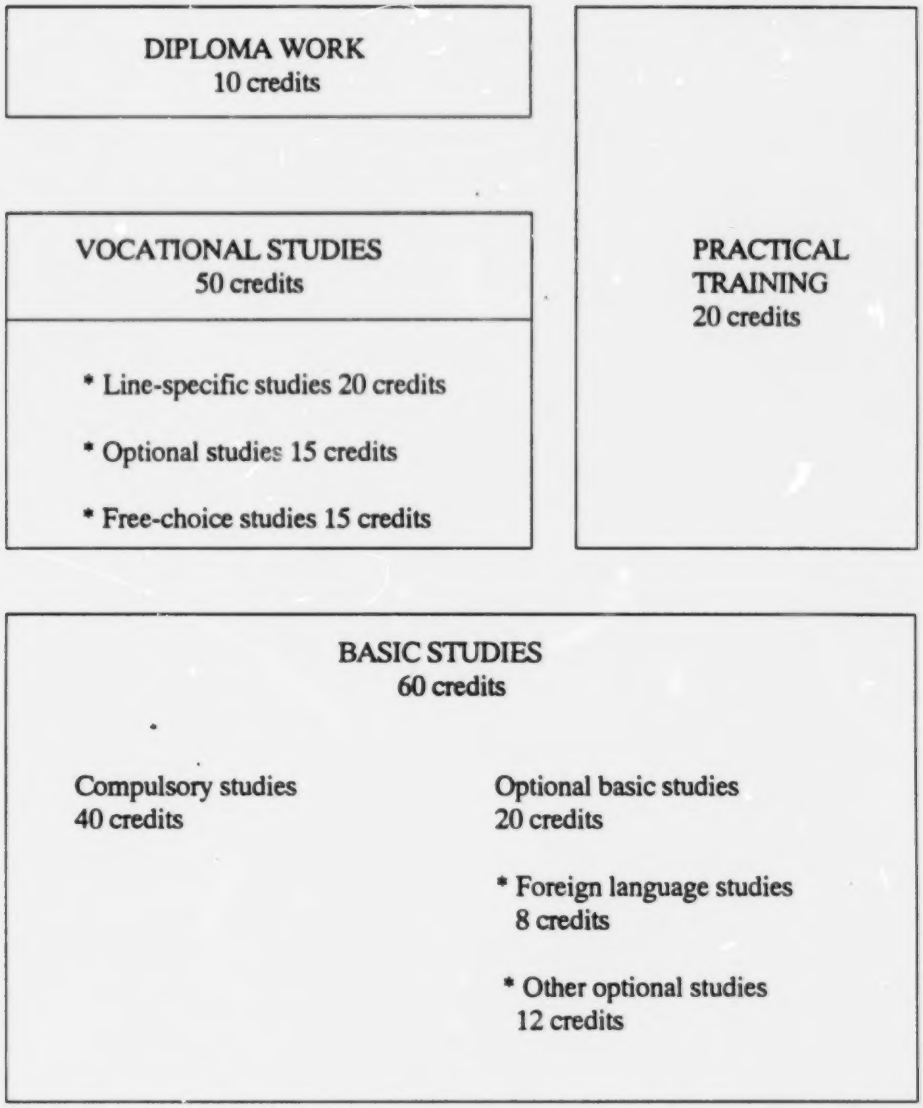

Figure 2. The degree programme in economics and administration; a current example (Ministry of Education, 1993)

APPENDIX 3

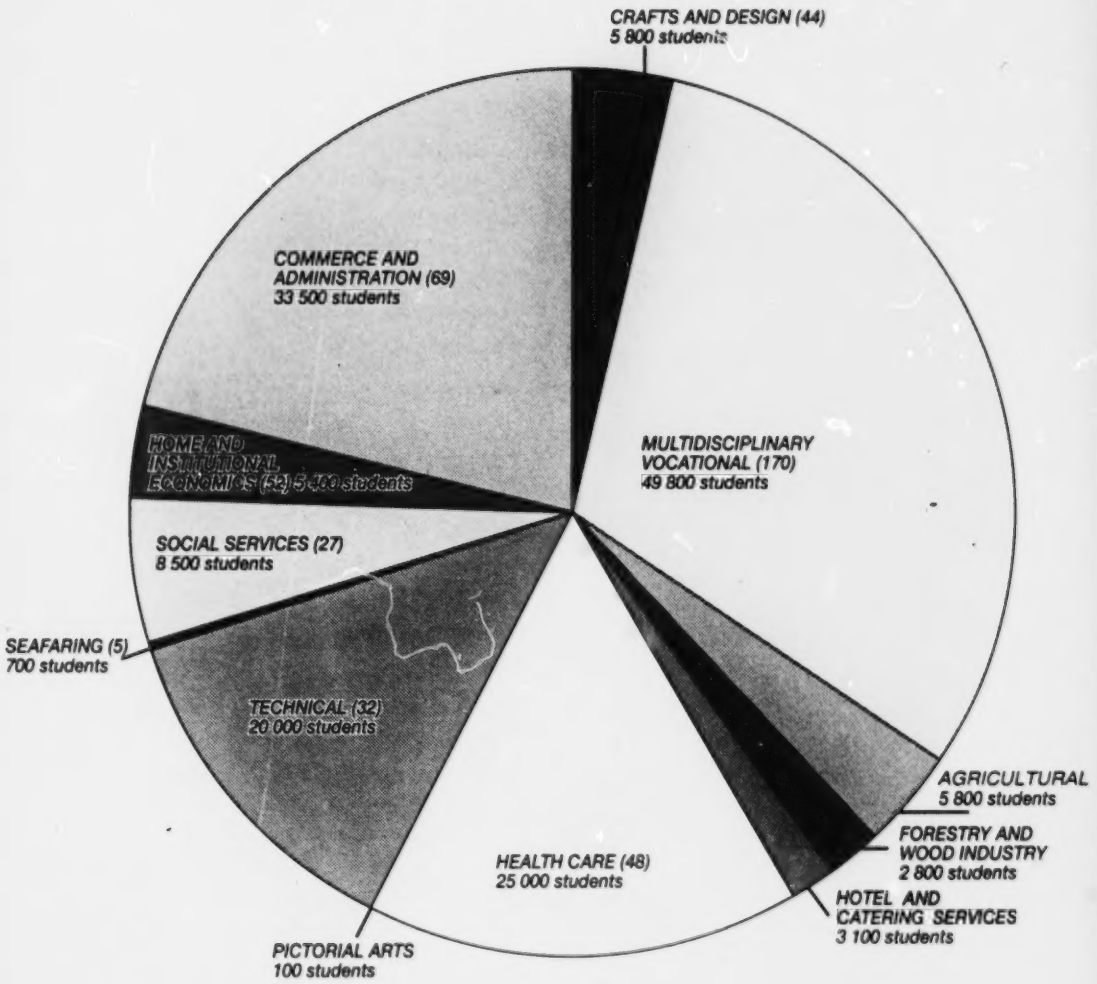

Figure 3. Vocational education in Finland 1990 (number of students) (National Board of Education, 1991)

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DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES TO VOCATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE EDUCATION IN FINLAND

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ABSTRACT

Mutka, U. & Rousi, H. 1994. Development challenges to vocational social service education in Finland. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

For the whole of the post-war period, vocational education in the social field has been provided in a wide range of institutes of various kinds and types. The fragmentation related to social service education changed during the process of secondary education reform. The hierarchical model for division of work guided secondary level education in all occupational fields. This meant the same educational and administrative structure for all occupations.

The secondary education reform for social service occupations meant that there were social workers with a university education, supervisors with an institute level education, and social workers with a lower ("school") level education.

The hierarchical model of education is no longer relevant to the modern phase of Finnish welfare society where the essence of social work is changing continuously. The education system should be based on the understanding of the demands of the future. The future trends of the social field are connected to the question: "How has Finnish society become a welfare state and what is the current state of welfare?"

A major challenge is to guarantee that there is an opportunity for smooth progression in education, which is being implemented by opening up the Finnish school system. One essential part of this is the setting up of experimental polytechnics.

In developing all vocational education it is essential to have the variety of life and interactive nature of society as a central starting point for educational solutions.

Concerning the reform of vocational education in the social field we must keep in mind, along with regional and local perspectives, global requirements. Global responsibility includes the perspectives of the future: "How to give the next generations the chance for a future worth living?"

Keywords: Social service education, educational structure, welfare state

1 INTRODUCTION

Both the structure and the contents of Finnish vocational education were reformed during the secondary education reform in the 1980s. Within that framework all the different study options, which until then had been fragmented into hundreds of various study lines and tens of different institutes, were gathered into 25 broad basic lines. Although there were numerous lines for specialization as well as alternative orientation schemes within those basic lines (with some study lines also continuing independently outside the basic lines), this reform made the domain of vocational education, which had been so far very heterogeneous, significantly clearer and more coherent. One central goal of the reform was to open a passage to a university education within a field of study. This did not mean, however, that vocational education would have given general qualifications for university education.

The basic lines of secondary education reform were drawn at a time when the essential function of vocational education was to provide society with the labour force needed in traditional industrial work. The model of division of work developed within industrial production divided work into three parts: research, planning and development; organisation and administration; and work on the shop floor. This hierarchical model for division of work also guided the way the secondary education reform was planned and carried out. The educational theory behind this reform was based on discrete goals and developmental aims. Another important and historically placed structural solution in the reform was that the education lines were differentiated by the field of occupation in parallel with the production structures in the industrial society.

For the social service occupations, this meant that there were three hierarchically organised groups of vocations: social workers with a university education, supervisors with an institute level education, and actual social workers with a "school" level education. At the school level, vocational social service education was divided into separate study lines for child minders, trained home helpers, and nurses for the mentally disabled. At the institute level, the education led to such professions as that of care worker for the mentally disabled, social work assistant, social welfare officer and deacon.

Following the present rapid change in the society, i.e. the so-called second modernization process, the nature of all social work is also changing considerably. Increasing automation, changes in occupational structures and related value revolutions have lead to the present situation in which the externally controlled, fragmentary and routine way of working pertaining to the rationalized development stage of work is giving way to a new approach where understanding of the whole is essential (Kauppi, 1989, 112).

Education in the domain of social services (like all occupational education) has been searching for new ways of acting amid this change. Because the old model of education is strictly segmented and based on the simple division of work, it does not

apply well enough to the new ideas about division of work, according to which work is constantly changing and becoming more flexible. Understanding the essence of change (and implementing the needs for flexible and continuing education accordingly) is now emphasized as a challenge to structural development in vocational education.

2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF FINNISH SOCIETY INTO A WELFARE STATE

The aim to provide social security and welfare has been common to societies at different points of time. How the functions of social policy have been defined and interpreted at the time has been essentially affected by the prevailing social conditions, the concepts of the human condition, knowledge and reality as well as related values. When we are considering how the social service education in our country can be adapted to the imagined changes in society or how it can contribute to the development of society, we must consider how Finnish society has become a welfare state and what is the current state of welfare.

Risto Eräsaari (1990, 1993) has outlined the development of social policy and the welfare state through the interpretations provided by the discussion on the changing world as the target for social policy. This discussion is closely related to the dialogue on social modernization and has also illustrated the trends of modernization as well as the needs for change and development in education.

At the early age of the agrarian society a social problem was interpreted as a plague or a curse fallen on people, the removal of which required mercy, sanctification or reconciliation. This approach has given a legitimate founding to charity work based on Christian conviction or deep humanity. Later, at the early stage of the industrial society when the capitalistic way of production was spreading, a whole new social class was formed, which became a central target group for social policy. Major, new social issues (such as those of tenant farmers, labour and women's rights) rose beside the supernatural explanations. A clear, unambiguous solution was sought for all these issues (Eräsaari, 1990, 1993).

As the issues mentioned above became history, the themes for social policy were derived from the problems related to the birth of modern society. Here, problems could arise from such phenomena as alienation, maladjustment, illegitimacy, youth alcoholism, among many other things. Eventually, the concept of normalization has become a difficult question: what is the normality to adapt to, to associate with or to resume when the existing social norms keep changing faster and faster (Eräsaari, 1990, 1993)?

It has been characteristic of the ideology of the welfare state that, with time, the definition of problems has shifted from law definition to norm definition. At the same time, however, the concept of a norm and the mental images associated with normative types have been continuously reassessed. According to Eräsaari (ibid.) this kind of

problem definition is now in competition with risks brought about by scientific research. These risks are formed socially and culturally and they have to be faced individually. Moreover, these risks cannot be solved or normalized anymore; they can only be defined regardless of whether the question is of traces of poison in fruit, of safety standards for toys or of many other daily matters. In the extreme, this risk-oriented thinking contains menacing visions of threats but also the need of and opportunity for a counter-policy, which is increasingly required by our globalizing world.

The Finnish welfare state has developed gradually when trying to find answers to the key questions of social policy in each era, as outlined by Eräsaari (ibid.). Development had a slow start and progress also remained slow for a long time. At the earliest stage "the constant fight against poverty" was characteristic of it. Poor relief had a central role in social policy, even at the beginning of the 20th century, although it was unpopular, at least on a large scale, in the social policy of independent Finland. Gradually, as industrial production became more common, a new policy was adopted alongside poor relief. This new policy focussed on workers as a group and it attempted to improve working conditions and prevent social risks. It was not yet, however, a matter of actual welfare policy; such objective-oriented sociopolitical activity concerning the whole population did not belong to our social policy in the first decades of this century (Haatanen, 1993).

At this stage, there were already workers in social services. Institutional care was the most common type of poor relief. At first, almost anyone considered suitable could be selected to be the manager of a poor house, but the first two-week training course for them was arranged in Jyväskylä as early as 1896. In bigger towns, there were some paid workers in social care, although their number increased only slowly. The main part of social work was taken care of by trustees in municipalities or by charity organisations (Satka, 1993).

Along with industrialization, a major cultural change took place, which eventually modified Finnish society considerably. Education opened doors for social and cultural ascent. The traditional ties to one's own, local society lost momentum. The development towards nuclear families began as well as the long and slow progress towards individualization. Nevertheless, the socio-political climate was very unsettled between the World Wars, and the historic upheavals drew the people's main attention. The emphasis of social work in municipalities was put on child welfare. Municipalities increased the amount of home care for the poor, improved the control of child care and welfare, and gave support to the establishment of instruction for child welfare workers (Satka, 1993).

At a very early stage, the nature of social work was defined by nursing and care work performed by women. Practising "a social motherhood" evolved gradually into paid work and a vocation, as training of child care workers developed rapidly from the 1920s. Also the training for home helps and welfare workers began in between the World Wars, though it expanded considerably only after World War II (Satka, 1993).

The development of the Finnish welfare state really began only after World War II. The years 1945-49 are often mentioned as "the first period of development of the welfare state". The turmoils of war provided an opportunity for a profound change in social thinking. Contrary to the pre-war aims, the new goal was to guarantee all citizens a livelihood in case of illness, disability, unemployment, old age or increased family cost by developing a social insurance system and free health care. At the same time the responsibility for the organisation of social security was partly transferred from the municipalities to the state (Haatanen, 1993).

The services of the Finnish welfare state were not created from nothing after World War II. They were founded on the social work carried out for decades partly on a voluntary and partly on an official basis. During the 1960s and early 1970s, fast economic growth together with great social and ideological transition made the rapid development of social security possible. In the background there were changes in occupational structures and parallel phenomena: urbanisation, a new lifestyle, dilution of some of the traditional functions of family, and women's appearance in the labour market. The local societies' possibilities to take care of their members decreased. Insurance systems for retirement pensions and social security were created, a broad organisation of children's day-care was carried out and unemployment insurance was improved. The shift to public social services made it possible to finally get rid of the old tradition of poor relief (Haatanen, Satka, ibid.).

At the second stage of welfare services, social policy has concentrated on supporting standards and quality of life by means of social services and social benefits. It has not been a matter of only maintaining the labour force, but a more holistic approach of securing the general well-being of people. Along with the welfare state, modern caring professions have developed, which operate in the fields of education, health care and social services. Also, training for these professions has developed by degrees. Characteristic of the development of vocational training for social services and all work in that domain has been a gradual change from a patronising and controlling approach to the direction of a welfare professional in personal relations. Sometimes this change has caused serious doctrinal dispute, which is shown by, e.g. the dissension between representatives of traditional welfare work and of scientific-professional social work, which has been on-going for decades (Satka, ibid.).

For the whole post-war period, vocational education in the social field has been provided in a wide range of institutes of various kinds and types. This fragmentation related to education has hindered the development of a coherent professional identity among the workers in the social services. An illustrative example of the diversity of the education and the difficulties of perceiving it as a whole, is provided by the fact that when a basic study line for social workers was launched in 1988 as the last basic line within the secondary education reform, it took only a couple of years to notice that the main ideas of the whole reform were obsolete and required modifications. The reform was important, however, because it promoted professional identity in the secondary

level social occupations. In this way, different vocational groups of this level were given the opportunity of close educational cooperation for the first time. During this education they were able to effectively develop the indispensable cooperation skills and networks required in working life.

3 THE NEW CHALLENGES TO EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK

The criticism of the welfare state has gradually increased since the early 1980s. At first this debate was theoretical and imported from abroad, deriving mainly from neo-conservative and neo-liberal thinking. This criticism concerning the welfare state has been divided into three different types of argument. Karisto and Takala (1985) summarized it as a crisis for the welfare state in terms of cost, effectiveness and legitimacy. First, there is "right-wing" criticism which appeals against the costs of the welfare state which incur an unreasonable tax-burden, and cause a loss in motivation to work because of the good social benefits available. The second source of criticism is labelled "liberal". Liberals pay attention to the technocratic methods of the welfare state, to its harsh bureaucracy and to those methods of control it uses, which are considered to violate personal rights. "Neo-leftist" criticism, in turn, sees the welfare state belonging to the strong majority and being cold for the poor (Haatanen, P. ibid.).

The Finnish welfare state seemed to have a sound basis still in 1990, as it was - and still is - clearly supported by the majority of the people. However, the sustained growth of gross domestic production stopped in 1990 and turned into a steep decline the following year. As a consequence of the recession's sudden violence, depth and domestic effect, the welfare state has been subjected to a reassessment. At the same time there has been an outburst of the neo-rightist criticism in particular (Haatanen, ibid.; Julkunen, 1992, pp. 77, 85-86).

The economic recession and the financial crisis of the welfare state force us to give up many benefits created in the good times of economic growth. While these benefits have been partially cut, we have also been directed towards a more thorough reassessment of the public sector and social security. As the present article is being written, it is too early to make any firm analyses on the social policy of post-modern society, social work or the future of education. It seems obvious that many of the organisations created in totally different times to serve a totally different society are dissolving and transforming into something else. The choice is not ours anymore, regarding the loosening of structures and internationalization and pluralization of our society, which has been until recently very homogeneous. It is evident that both work and education in the social sector have to react to these new challenges.

The development of education, which has been carried out lately, gives us possibilities to react to the prevailing trends. In the development scheme not only very versatile cooperation between regional institutes but also close international cooperation

is emphasized. The goal is to bring about vocational education based on a wide range of various learning environments and subjects, and where strict divisions between sectors are de-emphasized and networking is supported by means of many structural solutions. As a first step of this reform the problem of sector-bound, occupation-oriented education has been resolved and we have now instead a basic degree in common with the school-level vocations, which gives a very flexible and broad qualification for various branches in the social sector and health care. Another essential challenge to social education, like to all vocational education, is to guarantee that there is an opportunity for smooth continuous education, which is implemented by opening the hierarchical school system so that it is possible to accept previous studies within later studies in a flexible way.

According to the analysis by Risto Eräsaari (ibid.), social policy in the post-modern world deals with threats and respective counter-policies in addition to problems and their solution or risks and their definition. When reassessing the principles of a welfare state, we should be oriented not only towards local and regional perspectives but also towards the concepts of global responsibility and ethics. In the future many worldwide problems, e.g. energy, overpopulation, nourishment and ecological issues will require closer cooperation among countries and continents. Technological progress has had many positive consequences for the citizens of welfare states, but at the same time brought about new threats to the whole globe.

In developing all vocational education it is essential to have the variety and basic interdependence of life and events as a central starting point for educational solutions (Fig.1, App. 1). In that development work we have to discuss what kind of relation we want to have to nature and to the ideas of social justice and sustainable development. Raising the educational value foundations to the level of global responsibility helps us escape from the narrow hierarchical structures that were the stumbling blocks in the previous reform. A prerequisite for global responsibility is the awareness of the fact that the menacing threats may come true. This requires facing the reality with open eyes and cooperation and networking among workers and occupations in different fields. In reforming vocational education we must keep in mind, along with regional and local perspectives, the global requirements that give the next generations the chance for a future worth living.

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APPENDIX 1

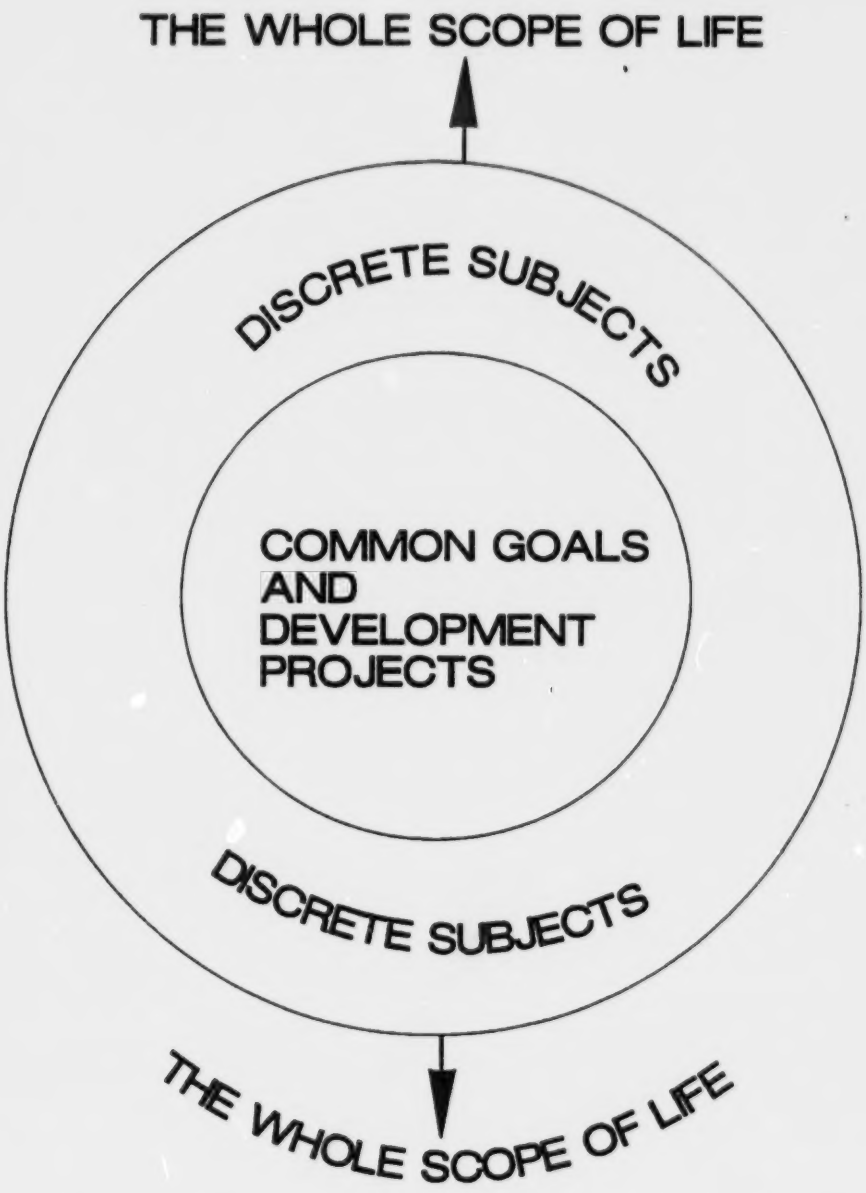

Figure 1. The phase of integrated goals in the development process of the school system (Mutka, Rousi 1990)

QUALIFICATIONS OF CAREGIVERS

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ABSTRACT

Lasonen, J., Shome, S. & Burge, P. 1994. Qualifications of caregivers. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

Human interest and the nature of caring establish the foundations for analyzing the qualifications and knowledge-base of caring services. Social welfare programs in Finland are nurtured by the principles of justice and equity. Caring, concern and connection have motivated women to struggle for improving the quality of human life in Finland and the United States, in two different socio-political settings. Social and health care services are included in one category of modern services which all are female-dominated occupational areas. Skills, competencies, and qualifications of caring services are unique in nature. Their definitions have not been included in the traditional work sociology. However, education in nursing and social work as caring sciences requires cross-disciplinary approaches from educators.

Keywords: Qualifications, human caring, female-dominated occupational areas

1 INTRODUCTION

The objectives of this report are to trace Finnish women's individual, societal and historical struggles for improving the quality of human life through caring, concern and contacts. Finland, a Nordic country with five million people, has a strong emphasis on social welfare programs. The National Board of Social Welfare formulates policy and gives direction to provincial boards, but the trend in Finland is toward decentralization, with much of the social services being administered at the local level (Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 1986). Finland has twelve provinces, and within these are 461 municipalities. Most of the social service programs are provided within each municipality. Social work can be provided by professionals. The aim of social work in Finland, according to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, is to develop community and structural social work in parallel with individual and family social work: "The purpose of structural social work is to influence planning in other sectors so as to prevent social problems from arising. It thus involves making a deeper study of the social costs of different societal policies" (p. 15). An example of a practical program administered by Finnish municipalities is the "Home help" service, given to families when they need special assistance (sickness, childbirth, older people and disabled in need of special help).

The underlying theme in this paper is that principles of justice and equality are based on feminine caring values in societies, of which Finland and the United States are examples. Acceptance of the feminine caring values is built upon the following: political acceptance of women by men, permeation of society by a needs-oriented caring culture, and acknowledgement of women's inalienable right to employment.

The purposes of this paper are (1) to outline qualifications of the female-dominated areas of caring services, and (2) to define the knowledge-base of caring services.

2 SERVICE SECTOR

The service sector is one of the major occupational structures of many societies. In the Western World, the service sector has expanded in the last thirty years. In Finland, the service sector consists of public administration and its production of services, commerce, transport, banking, insurance, health care, dependants care, hotel and restaurant, business, and recreation services. Sixty percent of the workers in Finland are employed in the service sector; eighty percent of these jobs are held by women (Julkunen, 1992). Human relations are important in the delivery of these services.

Raija Julkunen (1992) has categorized modern services based on human relations and customer work to (1) caring services, (2) professional services, and (3) commercial customer services. The nature of customer relations, knowledge base, and ethics of these three types of services are different.

Caring services refer to holistic caring relationships, which include experiential actions, i.e. personal everyday knowledge and skills, and to moral commitment. Competencies of empathic and sympathetic feelings and skills are necessary in caring relations. Julkunen (1990) has stated:

> "Finland, as a Nordic welfare state is a service state, ...a reproductive and caring state if seen from a woman's perspective. The expansion of the caring state is one indication of the feminist conquest of the public sphere. The feminization of welfare state professions is in harmony with the femineity of caring." (p. 159)

Professional services can be characterized with neutral client relations. Clients hand over their symptoms to specialists who expertly and authoratively diagnose problems and determine treatment. Professional services are based on scientific foundations which are adapted into practice. The third type of services, commercial services, indicate specific service relationships, e.g., a teller deposits money or gives investment advice. Ethics of commercial services are subjected to marketing and productivity.

In the industrialized Western world most women are trained and employed in clerical, service and sales jobs (Pocock, 1988). The segregation patterns in division of labour have not changed dramatically, even in the countries like the United States and Finland, where commitment to changes in gender stereotypes has been relatively strong. Certain jobs remain female-dominated; in Canada, for example, seventy-five per cent of all clerical workers are women (Gaskell, 1992, p. 124). Many female-dominated service jobs are based in the traditional female stereotype of helpmate where dedication to others, dependence and personal appearance are emphasized.

In the United States, many women have the "job" of being the caregivers for their families, in addition to their regular jobs. According to Sohoni (1993):

> "...80 percent of the care needed by ailing elders is provided by families and the typical primary caregiver is a wife or adult daughter. Two out of five caregivers spend forty hours a week in their caregiving responsibilities ...Currently it is estimated that the average woman spends seventeen years raising children, and...nineteen years...caring for aging relatives; 40 percent of all workers over forty provide care to aging parents; 12 percent of all women who care for their aging parents had to quit their jobs to provide this care..." (p. 67)

Barber and Allen (1992) have raised some interesting questions about women as caregivers in American society:

> "Are women the primary caregivers because it is natural to them or because of their subordination in a male-centred society? At issue is whether caregiving is a chosen, rewarding, and valuable activity - a labour of love - or whether caregiving is work that only women will do

> because they are more oppressed as a group than men? ...As subordinates, is caregiving the only way in which women are allowed access to power and rewards?" (p. 145)

3 SKILLS, COMPETENCIES AND QUALIFICATIONS

Work makes intellectual, personal and technical demands upon workers. According to Gaskell (1992), different kinds of work make different kinds of demands. Recognizing the skill and knowledge all persons bring to their work challenges us to examine the division of labour along class and gender lines.

McCurry (1992) defines skills as specific kinds of operations that combine to form the global attribute of competence. Skills are viewed as specified and specific performances that can be directly demonstrated, observed and assessed. Skills are the components of competence. According to Pocock (1988), key elements of skills training are: (a) a broad basket of tasks; (2) institutional training arrangements, such as apprenticeship, mentoring, or job-shadowing; (3) public resources to provide training; (4) some control over the supply of workers in their occupations; and (5) better pay and vertical graduation according to skills. The definition of skills has been influenced by struggle in the workplace. There are relationships between skills, industrial organizations and the laws of capitalist production (Pocock, 1988). According to the conventional view, jobs traditionally held by women do not require much skill. Therefore, the concept of skill is a historical construction reflecting technological factors and the relations of capitalist production and gender (Bennett, 1984). Phillips and Taylor (1986) have stated that the definitions of skills have been saturated with sexual bias; women's jobs have been called either "skilled" or "semiskilled" without considering the amount of training or ability required for these jobs.

Competence is something that can be attributed to an individual on the basis of inferences drawn from performance in assessments of actual work. People are competent in an area of work if they have the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be able to function at some minimum level of acceptability. The concept of occupational competence is a global or general construct, and should be distinguished from performance on specific tasks or the demonstration of specific skills (McCurry, 1992). Competencies include general basic vocational education, vocational specialization, and practical experience.

Unlike competence, qualifications are defined by characterizing people's capacities and abilities. The concept of qualifications is found especially in European literature of workforce education. Qualifications refer to the knowledge, skills and attitudes which a person needs to implement a work process. Qualification is a cross-disciplinary phenomenon. Productivity of work has been studied in economics, the nature of labour organizations in sociology and management science, personality development in

psychology, teaching and learning in educational science, and ethics in philosophy. Virkkunen and Miettinen (1981) have determined professional qualifications to be:

- individual capacities, knowledge and motivation
- skills to specialize and deepen theoretical and practical knowledge corresponding to certain tasks
- abilities to follow up scientific and technical development in an occupational area, and to adopt the changes to personal working methods
- ability to move horizontally and vertically from one task to another within the same occupational area
- ability to plan and develop new working methods, and
- ability to adopt new working methods in practice.

Rauhala (1991) has commented that this concept of professional qualifications best applies to the model of manufacturing and managerial logic of work where promotion and graduation are linear in nature. Whether there is a linear advancement span in social care work or not is open to question. So called "promotion" from everyday tasks to positions of leadership in social work might also mean a transfer to a completely different professional area. Additionally, because caregiving employees interact with people, activities are seldom the same from day to day. Social workers often create the personal and universal theories of everyday praxis.

Traditionally, occupations have been studied in work and industrial sociology. Central concepts of sociological research have included automation, qualifications, team work, and work load. Korvajärvi (1986) and Rantalaiho (1986) found that the traditional concepts in the sociology of work do not cover the content and uniqueness of female-dominated office work. Rauhala (1991) has supported their view in her studies concerning social work. Unlike the male-dominated industrial work, human interest is present on many levels of service work processes. Human interest determines both the content and methods of care (Rauhala, 1991). Rantalaiho (1986) has metaphorically explained office work as knitting, where one yarn moves vertically and horizontally at the same time. The same yarn creates a sweater from all the stitches.

The process of evaluating skills has been political, contextual and ideological (Gaskell, 1992). Skill has been a category that has given status and importance to work in common parlance and in wage negotiations. Skill categories are ideological categories, used to justify existing hierarchies at work.

Women have not had the power to insist upon the recognition and value of their skills in the workplace. Their lack of ability to define their work as skilled is not something that has occurred in people's minds, but is a special process that has institutional consequences in relation to educational qualifications and opportunities (Gaskell, 1992). Women's skills related to caregiving have often been considered to be part of being female, and therefore discounted in the marketplace. Being considerate, helpful, polite and attractive in particular ways are learned traits, but they are not

considered skills. Caring qualities, social skills and manual dexterity have been regarded as female attributes, rather than skills developed through training and experience. Both women and men have underestimated their everyday coping skills in development of their professional lives.

Martin (1985) has pointed out that the content and structure of traditional schooling have been designed to prepare young people for a male-dominated world. The original idea of instructing students in the humanities was to equip them for civic life and prepare them for leadership roles in the public sector. Liberal education was based on the needs of the cultivated gentleman. Schooling has ignored the ethics of caring. The ideal of the educated person has been based on stereotypically male characteristics - analytical, objective, rational and interested in things, but not nurturing, empathic, intuitive or supportive. Education has separated the mind from the body, thought from action, and reason from emotion. To educate the whole person, and to ensure the survival of our society, the caring tasks and qualities must be integrated into the mainstream and into the public school system.

Gilligan (1977) has called into question this male model of moral development. In *In a Different Voice* and subsequent work she analyzed girls' moral development by listening to what girls had to say. She has rejected judging moral development on the Kohlberg scale (1966) and posits instead a separate way of thinking about others, which she has called a "care perspective". Care has been described by Gilligan as "an activity of relationship, of seeing and responding to need, taking care of the world by sustaining the web of connection so that no one is left alone" (p. 62).

Representatives of some traditionally female-dominated professions have developed caring occupations, such as nursing and social work. The starting point for analyzing the skills in nursing and social work has been traced to the knowledge base of those professional areas and the nature of everyday praxis of caring.

4 CASES

4.1 Office Work

The study of clerical work shows how tasks with considerable technical complexity have failed to get labelled as "skilled" (Gaskell, 1992). However, clerical work demands good language skills and specific technical typing or keyboarding skills. Clerical workers often deal with numbers as well as words. The average wage for clerical work is below the overall average wage. Clerical workers have little access to power and authority (Rantalaiho, 1986). Clerical work today is female-dominated, a change from the nineteenth century. In the twentieth century, clerical work has become a female proletarian occupation, where skills are learned off the job and are not combined with authority. The typical clerk in the early nineteenth century office was an aspiring businessman, apprenticed to the capital class. Master craftsmen, such as

bookkeepers controlled the office. Apprentices learned their craft on the job, advancing through promotions to positions of greater responsibility. All these workers were male (Gaskell, 1992).

Rantalaiho (1986) and Wynn (1979) have not been satisfied with the existing descriptions of office work. Wynn started to conceptualize office work in terms of workers' social interaction. Through social interaction in the offices, the framework of interpretations is produced, maintained, strengthened and reproduced. The framework of interpretation determines the quality and usefulness of products and means in office work. According to Rantalaiho (1986) the very nature of the content of clerical office work is found in social interactions. These interactions affect the work itself. Women's reproductive orientation to work ensures everyday continuity and security in offices.

4.2 Nursing Science

Nursing science consists of the scientific knowledge of nursing in partnership with caring. According to Krause & Salo (1993) nursing science and praxis correspond to societal demands, such as people's needs and expectations of health services. Professional ethics and scientific knowledge guide nursing work. Knowledge areas of nursing include sciences such as anatomy, physiology, pharmacology, mathematics, statistics, computing, medicine, education, psychology, sociology, ethics, and aesthetics. Meleis (1991) believes that nursing is both a science and an art. The profession of nursing requires specialized training and academic education. Nurses' work can be characterized as a combination of expertise, autonomy, commitment and responsibility.

4.3 Social Work as Caring Science

Pirkko-Liisa Rauhala (1991) has based her analysis of social work and services in Finland on historical and societal contexts, political science, development of social policy, and perceptible tensions on everyday social work. Rauhala (1991) has succeeded in showing the invisible logic of social work by using a cross-disciplinary approach.

The social security system in Finland employs about ten per cent of workforce. The staff members are trained in universities, colleges, vocational institutes, and through apprenticeship programs. The personnel consists of day care teachers and aides, social work and special needs supervisors and instructors, deacons, day care nurses, and home aides. Finnish clients primarily want to have concrete services, information and advice from social workers. Only some clients expect to have economic help in Finland (Sihvo, 1990).

Social work has historically been a female-dominated occupation. The goals of social work in many cultures are: (1) to manage social security and other services; (2) to ensure the continuity of everyday life, enabling families to meet their survival needs; and (3) to correct social fractures. The methods of social work include the palpable

services produced daily, with which caring and human relations are established (Rauhala, 1991). The method of caring work formulates its contents, and the contents of caring make up methods.

The functional structure of social work is a product of knowledge and skills constructed from many social systems. The knowledge base of social work is made up of experiential, biographical and educational characteristics of social workers, and of the aspects of caring, ethics and cultural work. Each of these individual, collective and scientific areas has separate theories and elements of practice.

Social work has been analyzed within the context of everyday praxis, as well as within institutions. Systems theory has showed functional conditions of systems, whereas a major theme of feminist theory has been a search for functional conditions of everyday life (Rauhala, 1991; Rauste-von Wright, 1991).

In addition to production and reproduction of palpable care, social work gives a good return in social relations, reciprocity, and growth and development among clients (Sipilä, 1989). Social workers also manage and adjust physical and social space for clients. They pave the way, and manage spaces without categories in society (Rauhala, 1991).

Historically, social work has been designed as stereotypical women's work, concerned with helping people to manage the economic, political and cultural changes in societies. By making visible some of the skills involved in care, we point out how invisible and unrewarded this work has been. Therefore, we call upon individual societies to recognize the importance of this work, and reward it in ways that have been lacking. We recommend the following:

(1) Higher pay for social workers. This could be the result of a wider recognition of the skills involved in caregiving.

(2) Formal recognition and licensure of many of the kinds of care currently provided by women, e.g. child care, elder care, home health care.

(3) Governmental and employment policies that recognize and support the caring role that people - both men and women - are asked to play at various stages of the life cycle. Family leave policies need to be made more "user-friendly". Finland, with its programs like home help and day care, and allowances provided to families to cover child care and care for the elderly, is ahead of the United States in this area. Sohoni (1993) calls for a national caregiving policy to be established as follows:

> "...to provide care to all children and to other dependents on a fully paid, sliding or subsidized basis. Care to the dependent, like disability, should be an insured benefit. It should be a conglomerate program with parental and caregiver leave, health insurance, disability insurance and other aspects feeding into it. Tax breaks and other incentives for home-based caregivers and those that combine work and caregiving should be integral to this concerted national caregiving plan." (p. 75)

(4) A re-examination ot the work of Gilligan (1977) and others, to see if there is indeed something to be learned from girls' moral development around these issues of care and interconnectedness.

In conclusion, it seems clear that if women can make visible and valued the caring work they have been doing in the caregiving professions, they will have a higher sense of self-worth, and be better rewarded. Society as a whole will benefit from this, as the work will be appreciated by those who currently receive the care, as well as those who provide it.

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FINNISH COMPREHENSIVE VOCATIONAL INSTITUTE TEACHERS' GENDER-ROLE ATTITUDES

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ABSTRACT

Lasonen, J., Burge, P. & Finch, C. 1994. Finnish comprehensive vocational institute teachers' gender-role attitudes. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

The purposes of this study were (1) to determine Finnish vocational teachers' gender-role attitudes and (2) to determine what personal and professional variables best explain the variance of gender-role attitudes. The sample consisted of 923 comprehensive vocational institute teachers from all major geographical areas of Finland. Of 923 vocational teachers, 92.3% returned a survey based on Osmond and Martin's (1975) Sex-Role Attitude Scale. Zero-order correlations and stepwise multiple regression conducted among personal and professional variables and the gender-role attitudes scale revealed that gender explained most of the variance in gender-role attitudes (R square = .275). The combination of the variables gender, age, household income, teaching general subjects, and marital status, entering the final stepwise multiple regression equation in that order, resulted in a multiple correlation of .579 with the coefficient of determination .335 ($F = 92.297$; $df = 5.917$; $p > .001$). The study findings among Finnish vocational teachers parallel those of American studies. Male and older teachers with less education have more traditional gender-role attitudes than female and younger teachers. The findings of the study provide implications for teachers' preservice and inservice programs.

Keywords: Gender-role attitudes, vocational teacher, gender equality, gender bias

1 INTRODUCTION

Gender-role stereotyping is attributing simplified and rigid preconceptions of behaviours, abilities, interests, values and roles to a person or a group of persons on the basis of their sex (Basow 1986). In sociocultural approach, gender stereotypes are determined with a so-called consensus definition: stereotypes are regarded as a part of human capital of a culture. Individuals are adjusted to human capital values through socialization. Stereotypes are norms and roles which justify and explain relationships between different groups (Ashmore & DelBoca 1981).

Evans (1988) analyzed constructions and reconstructions of gender relations in education with the concept of gender agenda which she defined: "An agenda is formed of ideas, issues and problems flowing from previous practice which shapes engagement with the immediate practice. Gender is one element of the continuous formation and reformation of the agenda (p. 7)". The schools involve personal, societal and collective gender agendas. Teachers and students have their personal gender agendas. Bureaucratic and legal arms of government affect school and personal lives through societal gender agendas. Collective gender agendas combine both personal and societal agendas which may be contradictory. This paper illustrates one aspect of personal gender agenda, teachers' gender-role attitudes, which are composed of the previous experiences and circumstances, and predominant collective gender agendas.

Gender-role attitude refers to a person's standpoint of the norms and expectations required for men and women according to their biological sex. Certain attitudes as beliefs of gender roles direct persons' frames of mind and habitual modes of regarding their conceptions of division of labour, work roles and counterparts' characters with different talents. Osmond and Martin (1975) defined modern gender roles to refer to flexible and dynamic transcendence of gender-role constraints. Traditional gender roles indicate those roles which are based on the roles of men versus women.

2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Traditional and gender-stereotyped conceptions of occupational roles have led to gender stratification in worklife and education in terms of segregated division of labour, money earned, and mobility in professions (American Association of University Women 1988, Basow 1986). Attitudes guide people to adopt different vocational and other life roles. Teachers' and students' attitudes and behaviour are related to each other through interaction (Harvey & Klein 1985, Tarmo 1990). Vocational educators' gender-role attitudes are significant in terms of their attitude transmission to students.

In Finland, researching gender and general education systematically started in the 1980's (Gordon, Lahelma & Tarmo 1991). Some investigations with an educational perspective have also been conducted among vocational students by Huttunen (1978,

1981) and Räsänen (1988). The literature concerning vocational school teachers' gender-role attitudes reveals that little is known about Finnish vocational educators' gender-role attitudes and related factors. In the United States, this topic has been examined quite extensively (Burge 1991). Burge and Cunningham (1982) have found that research in the area can help educators and administrators recognize gender stereotypes in education as they affect teaching and learning behaviour. Schooling has the potential to change gender-role attitudes (Goodman 1984). Reproduction of existing patterns of division of labour could be questioned consciously in schools. Promoting gender equality might be regarded as an ethical side of education. Since 1960's international discussions in education have touched the complicated problem of social inequities maintained through schools. Social inequities, including gender issues, have been explained with liberal traditions, structuralist theories, and critical theories focused on cultural reproduction (Leach & Davis 1990).

The goals of equity-promoting legislation will more likely be implemented by educators with modern and flexible gender-role attitudes. Therefore, it is important to determine gender-role attitudes of Finnish comprehensive vocational institute teachers. The purpose of this study was to describe to what extent variance in gender-role attitudes was accounted for by selected personal characteristic variables (gender, age, marital status, gender of children, and household income), and professional characteristic variables (occupational area, job roles, years of teaching experience, educational attainment, and parents' and spouses' occupational education).

3 METHODS

The independent variables consisted of personal and professional characteristics. The dependent variable comprised gender-role attitudes. Data were collected via a questionnaire which included 14 demographic items and 36 gender-role attitude items that were adapted for use with the Finnish vocational teachers from Osmond and Martin's (1975) Sex-Role Attitude Scale (SRAS) and Eversole's (1977) items concerning gender roles in education. The study sample consisted of 923 Finnish vocational teachers selected from the 5463 comprehensive vocational institute teachers in Finland. The response rate was 98,7%. Correlations and stepwise multiple linear regression were utilized to analyze the data. Results of shrinkage computations showed the stability of the regression analyses in the sample.

4 RESULTS

The vocational teachers of the sample came from all major geographical areas of Finland and consisted of a similar number of males (n = 494) and females (n = 425) who

all spoke Finnish as their first language. Their ages ranged from 27 to 62 with most being in their forties. The sample represented 14 basic occupational branches of the 25 available in Finnish vocational education.

Half of the vocational teachers taught in male-intensive occupational areas (n = 464) while only 2% of them taught in nonsex-intensive fields (n = 18). Female-intensive occupational areas were food processing, cosmetology, hair dressing, hotel services and catering, general subjects, and garment trade (n = 441). Male-intensive occupations included the vocational areas of vehicles and transportation, printing, mechanical engineering, heat, water and ventilation, surface treatment, woodworking, construction, surveying, and electrical engineering. A nonsex-intensive teaching area was chemical engineering.

The majority of the teachers primarily taught vocational subjects with only 8.3% describing their major teaching responsibilities as general subjects. Respondents' teaching experience averaged 13.4 years. Their household incomes tended to be on an average, middle class range in Finland. More than three fourths of the respondents (73.2% married and 5.9% cohabiting) were couples, and 20.8% of them were single. Families averaged two to three children.

Occupational training level of the sample was determined as a basis of the amount of schooling ranging from one to seven. The mean of occupational training level for fathers was 2.04, for mothers 1.70, and for spouses 4.51. The respondents' mean occupational training level was 4.87 (for females 5.13, and males 4.65). College-standard-level occupational education was possessed by 24.4% and technician-level by 68.6% of the teachers.

The range of respondents' mean scores on the gender-role attitude scale was 1.11 to 3.17 from a possible range of 1 (modern attitude end) to 4 (traditional attitude end) among the vocational teachers of the sample. The mean scores and standard deviations for males and females presented in Table 1 (see App. 1) have been arranged to indicate the range from most modern (lowest mean score) to most traditional (highest mean score) attitudes by items. The male respondents' mean was 2.11 (n = 494) and the females' mean was 1.74 (n = 425). The female vocational teachers held more modern gender-role attitudes on almost all items compared to their male counterparts.

Vocational teachers' gender explained most of the variance in gender-role attitudes (R square = .275). The combination of the variables gender, age, household income, teaching general subjects, and marital status, entering the final stepwise multiple regression equation in that order, resulted in a multiple correlation of .579 with the coefficient of determination .335 ($F = 92.297$; $df = 5.917$; $p > .001$). Females, younger persons, those who taught general subjects and had higher educational attainments, those with fewer years of teaching experience, and whose mothers and spouses had higher occupational training levels held more modern gender-role attitudes than other groups in the sample. Teachers' gender had the greatest impact on gender-role attitudes compared to the other variables, with males holding more traditional

attitudes than females. Age, marital status and teaching general subjects accounted for an additional six percent of the gender-role attitude variance. The variables in combination explained one third of the total gender-role attitude variance. Correlations among the study variables are presented in Tables 2 and 3 (Appendix 2 & 3). The results of stepwise multiple regression are presented in Table 4 (App. 4). The sum score of the gender-role attitude scale was utilized in the computations.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The major finding identified by this research was that gender accounted for the greatest amount of variance in the gender-role attitudes of Finnish vocational teachers. Male teachers favoured women's domestic roles but did not favour women in leadership and decision-making roles. Finnish vocational teachers' gender-role attitudes tended to parallel those of American vocational educators (Cunningham, Martin & Miller 1982). Male vocational teachers followed the patterns associated with gender-segregated division of labour, whereas females' perceptions of gender roles were more compatible with progressive equity legislation policies. Women might express more egalitarian gender-role attitudes compared to men in the hope of achieving equality in sharing the society's resources and household responsibilities, and in their career development. Women have been needed for the maintenance of an inexpensive labour force.

Knowledge about vocational teachers' gender-role attitudes can help vocational teacher educators to better recruit and prepare teachers who will train students for nontraditional occupations. According to national legislation and pilot studies on promoting gender-equity in Finland (Salonen 1988), vocational school teachers' inservice training courses should include such content. Teachers and administrators might need retraining in more gender-equitable teaching and in the awareness of their nonverbal behaviour that can contribute to less gender-biased schools and workplaces (Bayne & Robertson 1989). Teachers' and peers' expectations for students in classrooms could be based on recognizing diversified individual talents and needs that students have rather than gender (Atkinson 1983). Haataja, Lahdelma and Saarnivaara (1989) emphasized the importance of relieving students of stereotyped and inflexible gender roles at home and in work. Because teaching ethics include justice, students could be offered chances to become aware of men's and, especially, women's lives and values, and gender stratification in the course of history.

Processes of change could be started after realizing behavioral stereotypes. Teachers identified with most traditional gender-role attitudes might need more assistance in identifying the harm sexism creates for vocational students. Vocational teachers with modern attitudes could be candidates for leadership development as gender-role attitude change agents.

Gender-role attitude change with its conscious and unconscious aspects is a

complicated learning process. The problem of gender bias lies as well in changing attitudes as in removing the unconscious behaviours that might remain even after the attitude has been observed to change (Bayne & Robertson 1989). According to Basow (1986) even faulty gender-role stereotypes tend to remain unchangeable, or they can be changed very slowly. Attaining gender-equality goals in vocational education has progressed quite slowly in Finland (Parviainen & Kyrö 1990). To a great extent, students have made their gender-role choices before they enter vocational institutions. Further, closely related occupational schooling and worklife tend to reproduce prevailing values, attitudes and patterns of division of labour. Positive motivation of teachers and teaching practice-oriented workshops might serve as sound ways to promote gender equity. Teachers should get opportunities to reflect on and evaluate their own attitudes by themselves.

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APPENDIX 1

TABLE 1. *Means and Standard Deviations for Males' (n = 494) and Females' (n = 425) Responses to Sex-Role Attitude Items.*

Item	Females		Males	
	x	s	x	s
1. Equal Pay	1.11	0.35	1.58	0.59
2. Achieve through Husbands	1.15	0.46	1.63	0.67
3. Equal Job Opportunities	1.15	0.39	1.65	0.58
4. Men Free to Cook	1.25	0.45	1.69	0.63
5. Child Care Centers	1.36	0.57	1.67	0.69
6. Females Like to Be Males	1.34	0.50	1.73	0.57
7. Pampering Men	1.39	0.63	1.74	0.67
8. Woman Supervisor	1.36	0.53	1.86	0.72
9. Problems in Control	1.70	0.69	1.65	0.59
10. Same Jobs for Both Genders	1.47	0.55	1.88	0.66
11. Superiority of Genders	1.47	0.59	1.92	0.68
12. Men's Responsibility	1.53	0.62	1.93	0.73
13. Females Plan Career	1.54	0.59	1.94	0.55
14. Male Dominance Natural (36*)	1.57	0.60	1.96	0.66
15. Woman President (25)	1.46	0.63	2.09	0.92
16. Decision Making	1.48	0.65	2.09	0.74
17. Career Women Neurotic	1.51	0.60	2.13	0.70
18. Sex-Role Stereotypes	1.75	0.60	1.95	0.62
19. Husband Make Decisions	1.59	0.65	2.15	0.73
20. The Sex Equity Law	1.65	0.68	2.10	0.80
21. Enrolment	1.75	0.75	2.05	0.83
22. Male Liberation	1.79	0.67	2.06	0.70
23. Men's Self-Esteem Hurt	2.18	0.80	1.80	0.72
24. Female Sex Appeal	2.07	0.66	2.01	0.66
25. Male/Female Leadership	1.61	0.70	2.41	0.77
26. Genetic Make-Up (35*)	1.92	0.63	2.21	0.69
27. Career Interest (23**)	2.13	0.78	2.28	0.72
28. Females Like Dependency (30*)	2.03	0.71	2.48	0.67
29. Rational Discussion (28*)	1.92	0.72	2.59	0.73
30. Sex Ratio and Objectives	2.40	0.69	2.27	0.66
31. Learning Motivation	2.39	0.76	2.55	0.79
32. Primary School Children	2.22	0.83	2.77	0.86
33. Admission to Clubs/Lodges	2.39	0.81	2.66	0.82
34. Drastic Change in Equity	2.36	0.75	2.74	0.76
35. Battle between the Genders	2.57	0.73	2.62	0.66
36. Preschool Children	2.31	0.91	2.84	0.89

APPENDIX 2

TABLE 2. *Correlations between Personal Characteristics and Sex-Role Attitude Scores (N = 923).*

Personal Variable	n	r
Sex	919	.524 *
Age	866	.261 *
Marital Status	922	.057
Having Sons	923	.074
Having Daughters	923	.071
Household Income	914	-.064

* = $p < .001$

APPENDIX 3

TABLE 3. *Correlations between Professional Characteristics and Sex-Role Attitude Scores (N = 923).*

Professional Variable	n	r
General Education	920	-.277 *
Occupational Training	923	-.114 *
Father´s Occupational Training	923	-.055
Mother´s Training	923	-.125 *
Spouse´s Training	752	-.155 *
Male-Intensive Occupations	455	- 513 * a)
Female-Intensive Occupations	354	-.372 * a)
Teaching Vocational Subjects	701	.111 * b)
Teaching General Subjects	76	-.202 * b)
Teaching Experience	906	.194 *

Note. a) The group of nonsex-intensive occupations differed from those of male- and female-intensive occupations (Hinkle & Oliver 1986).
b) Teachers with leadership roles differed from those with teaching roles (ibid. 1986).
* = $p < .001$

APPENDIX 4

TABLE 4. *Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis between Personal and Professional Variables and Sex-Role Attitude Scores (N = 923).*

Variables	Regression Coefficients	SE	Beta Weights	t-value
1 Sex	11.879	.683	.484	17.384 ***
2 Age	.290	.042	.190	6.898 ***
3. Household Income	-1.117	.232	-.158	-4.821 ***
4. Teaching General Subjects	-3.841	1.225	-.087	-3.137 **
5. Marital Status	1.948	.991	.065	1.966
(Constant)	42.914	2.388	-	17.969 ***

*** = $p < .001$
** = $p < .01$

THE INTERACTION BETWEEN WORK AND FAMILY ROLES: UNITED STATES HOME ECONOMICS CURRICULUM EMPHASIS

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ABSTRACT

Burge, P. 1994. The interaction between work and family roles: United States home economics curriculum emphasis. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

This article describes the current focus of home economics curriculum efforts for public school programs in the United States. A list of the overall U.S. education goals is presented along with a national vision for home economics education. These goals are discussed in relationship to the evolution of the family, the economic and social conditions, and current government policies. The expanded role of women in the labor force is described as a major factor requiring instruction to assist learners in balancing the interaction between homemaking and employment roles. An example of the design of appropriate content is provided for each age level group. The curriculum content continues to emphasize improving the quality of family life.

Keywords: Home economics curriculum, women's homemaking and employment roles

1 INTRODUCTION

Home economics curriculum in the United States is designed with the primary goal of improving the quality of family life (East 1979). To meet this goal home economics teachers work within a complex educational system that is decentralized and primarily funded and controlled within each of fifty states comprising the nation (Frantz 1991). While each state program and indeed the daily content of each classroom lesson is designed to meet the unique needs of the location and the learners, certain central themes are found in most cases. Often these themes are directed by laws from the federal government which provide a small amount of the funding, but a large amount to influence in curriculum direction. This legislation, written by elected representatives called congress, is reviewed every five years, and is rewritten to reflect the socio-cultural and economic conditions of the current times.

2 SOCIETAL CHANGES AND THE CURRICULUM OF HOME-ECONOMICS

It is only by recognizing the ongoing evolution of the family, changing economic opportunity structures, and evolving government policies that current curriculum can meet the needs of modern and future families. In the 1990s many interrelated factors impact family life in the United States. Primary among these factors is the dramatic increase of dual-earner and single adult families and the related decline of households with full-time homemakers over the last 25 years (Ferber & O'Farrell 1991). The rapid increase of women's participation in the labour force underlies these changes in work and family life. For example, in 1962 only 43% of 25 to 54 year old women were working or looking for work outside their homes. In 1990, about 74% of women 25 to 54 years old were in the labour force (U. S. Department of Labour 1991). Women with children account for much of this increase. As a result of these and other labour force and family life trends, a great proportion of workers have responsibilities for family care as well as for their jobs.

Women's employment roles have meant increased income for many families, expanded employment options for women, and an expanded supply of labour for business and industry. With these obvious societal advantages come some social problems. For instance, adults working outside the home have less time for home and community needs. Parents must find quality child and elder care; less time is spent on household tasks; marriage is occurring later in life; and families are smaller (Felstehausen & Schultz 1991). Workers can no longer expect or be expected by employers to leave their family problems at home because there is likely to be no one at home to solve them (Felstehausen 1991). These family adjustments are taking place amid major changes in the economy. The number of low paying jobs had risen. At the same time, middle-

level earnings have been falling. As a result many Americans have experienced an erosion in their standard of living (Coyle-Williams & Maddy-Bernstein 1992).

Because of such changes a central focus for home economics instruction in order to improve the quality of family life is preparation for the combining of home and work roles, as well as the enhancement of personal life. This is in sharp contrast to the 1950s and 1960s model of the U.S. home economics classroom where the emphasis was placed on homemaking skills. One would likely see students making garments at a sewing machine or preparing baked goods from scratch.

3 GENERAL GOALS OF EDUCATION AND EMPHASIS ON HOME ECONOMICS INSTRUCTION

In reaction to societal changes and various evaluation reports about education, examination of the general goals for American education for the year 2000 was conducted (President's Commission on Education 1991). This document provides a background for the incorporation of work and family and other current areas of emphasis in the curriculum. The goals are the following:

1. All children will start school ready to learn. (This provides incentive and direction for parenthood education.)
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90 percent. (Making home economics relevant to all learners and especially to pregnant adolescents is called for here.)
3. All American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography; and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern society. (Assessment of educational outcomes for learners is receiving new attention with stress placed on using a variety of measurement techniques.)
4. U.S. students will be the first in the world in science and mathematics achievement. (This goal and the previous one require the incorporation of basic academic skills into the curriculum.)
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. (In the 20th century we will continue to view the family as closely tied to the economic well-being of our society.)
6. Every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning. (Family life concepts and personal development issues are clearly indicated here.)

These national goals for all of education echo the development of the national vision for home economics curriculum. This vision was encapsulated in a statement developed in December 1991 at the American Vocational Association National Meeting with input from leaders from every state. It reads as follows:

> "Vocational home economics education empowers individuals and families across the life span to manage the challenges of living and working in a diverse, global society. The relationship between work and family is our unique focus."

From this vision the leaders in the field continued to describe the core of the home economics education curriculum as focusing on the outcomes intended to enable students to be continuing learners throughout the life span. It should reflect an interdisciplinary approach, emphasizing knowledge, skills, attitudes, the relationship between work and the family, and processes essential for success in a diverse, global society. The major program elements are (1) problem solving, (2) creative thinking, (3) learning to learn, (4) teamwork, (5) oral communications and (6) goal setting. Instruction is designed to assist learners to move from knowledge and comprehension to the higher levels of thought: application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Home economics programs are offered across the educational spectrum in the United States: at the early childhood level (although not many exist at this time), the preadolescent, adolescent, occupational, postsecondary, and adult learning levels. The youth organization, Future Homemakers of America (FHA), is designed to be an integral part of the middle and senior high school programs. Most occupational programs are provided in food service and child care but some schools have clothing, home furnishings, and home and institutional services entry-level job market preparation programs, too.

Continual updating of the curriculum is conducted to insure that programs remain relevant to students' needs. For example, in the area of family life issues and the elderly, emphasis is currently placed on the "squeeze generation" - middle-aged adults who have to care for aging parents while continuing to raise their own children. Intergenerational programs are being established within schools and dependent care institutions for the benefit of all ages and to ease the burdens of adults who are balancing work and family roles. For example, at my institution, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, the traditional child care laboratory school has been expanded to a new facility with sections for preschoolers and senior citizens, and common areas where they may interact. The children and adults may have lunch, work in a vegetable garden, or read stories together.

Within the issue area time management is one important concept for classroom instruction. Figure 1 (App. 1) presents the design of U.S. programs showing each age level and an appropriate content concept for each group. This figure was developed by the Virginia Home Economics Program Services in 1992.

4 CONCLUSIONS

In summary, home economics education in the United States is diverse like the overall education system it functions within. It is designed, as Griggs (1988) stated, to teach families to engage in rational, purposive, communicative, and emancipative action. Brown's (1980) statement of directing this education toward solving problems of the family as a family (p. 101) gives further insight toward the nature of our American programs. Certainly home economics education is a critical component of the educational system for all students.

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APPENDIX 1

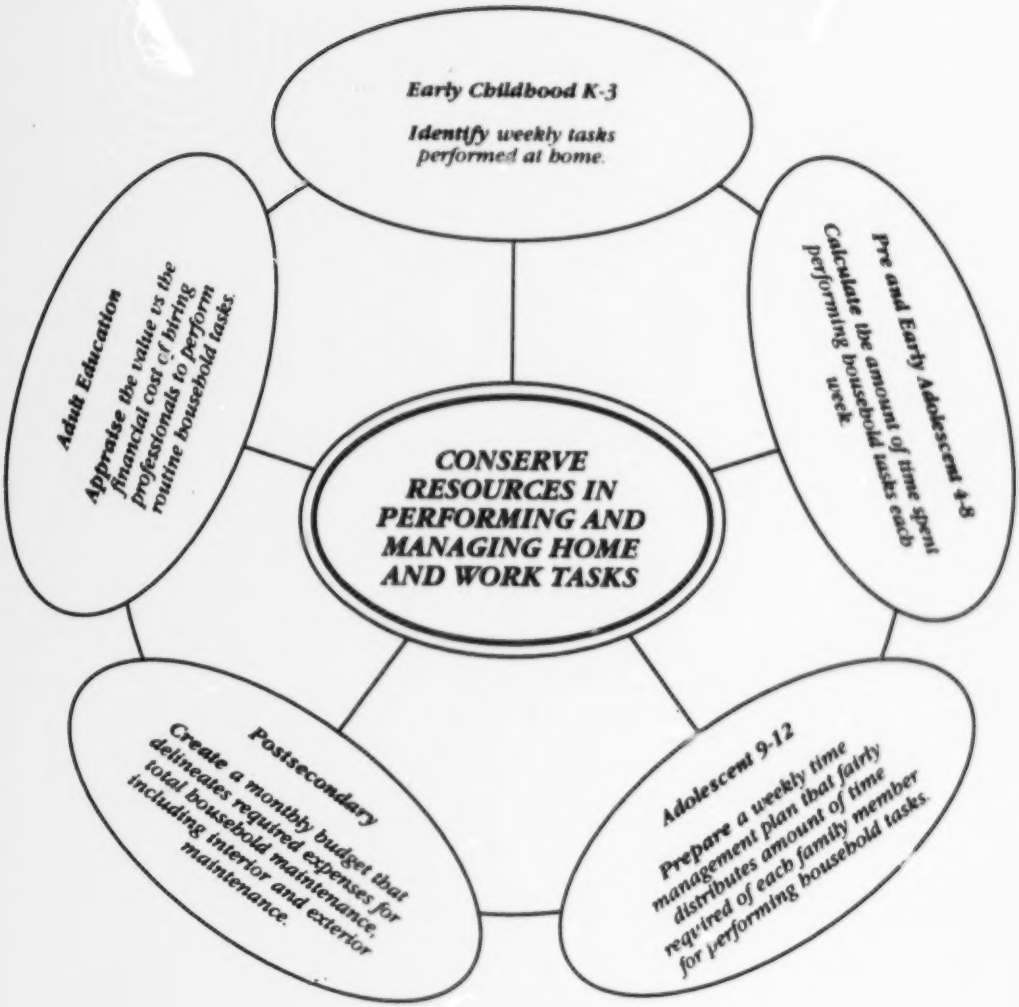
Early Childhood K-3
Identify weekly tasks performed at home.
Pre and Early Adolescent 4-8
Calculate the amount of time spent performing household tasks each week.
Adolescent 9-12
Prepare a weekly time management plan that fairly distributes amount of time required of each family member for performing household tasks.
Postsecondary
Create a monthly budget that delineates required expenses for total household maintenance, including interior and exterior maintenance.
Adult Education
Appraise the value vs the financial cost of hiring professionals to perform routine household tasks.
CONSERVE RESOURCES IN PERFORMING AND MANAGING HOME AND WORK TASKS

Figure 1. The design of U.S. home economics programs for different age levels

DEVELOPING CULTURAL AWARENESS THROUGH INTERNATIONAL COLLABORATION IN VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Finch, C. & Lasonen, J. 1994. Developing cultural awareness through international collaboration in vocational teacher education. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

The goals of higher education include developing cross-cultural skills. International collaboration contributes to teachers' cross-cultural skills development which refers to teaching from a multicultural perspective. Culture exists in human beings and it guides their values, expectations, and behaviour. Cultural awareness expands persons' power, energy, freedom of choice, and purposive decision-making ability in the multicultural world. A model of Cultural Grid, which integrates the cognitive variables of expectations, values, and behaviour with the social system variables, is introduced. The goals of developing cultural awareness including knowledge and skills comprise basic, intermediate, and advanced areas. The case of an established international linkage program is presented.

Keywords: Cultural awareness, international collaboration, vocational teacher education, intercultural education, crosscultural education

1 OVERVIEW

In a recent book titled *Who's Going to Run General Motors?* Kenneth Green and Daniel Seymour (1991) indicated that there are seven key skill areas university students need to develop if they intend to be successful in business. These areas include communication skills, interpersonal skills, technology skills, problem solving skills, multicultural skills, creative/innovator skills, and leadership skills (Green & Seymour, 1991). Among the multicultural skills listed as important are: being aware of cultural differences, having no fixed prejudices, tolerating foreign cultures, being able to adjust to new conditions, and being able to learn foreign languages. The emergence of a global economy certainly provides an ample reason for business students to develop these multicultural skills. However, it also provides justification for vocational teachers to develop multicultural skills. Just as businesses and industries are becoming more and more multinational, people who work in these companies must also shift their thinking and their work from a national to a global perspective. Vocational teachers can serve as catalysts for change in this area, but only if they are properly prepared to teach from a multicultural perspective.

One potential contributor to teachers' multicultural skills development is international collaboration. And international collaboration among faculty who prepare the teachers has the potential to change what future vocational teachers are taught, how they are taught, and ultimately how they teach about the global marketplace.

The purpose of this article is to address contributions that international collaboration can make to developing cultural awareness, with particular attention to vocational teacher education. Consideration is first given to the context for teacher education. Second, concepts associated with cultural awareness are presented. Next, a model for cross-cultural awareness is described. Fourth, a knowledge base for developing cross-cultural awareness is discussed. Fifth, international and intercultural program possibilities in vocational teacher education are described. And sixth, an example of establishing an international linkage is detailed.

2 THE CONTEXT FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education institutions usually are monocultural with domination of middle-aged, middle class, first-language speaking persons representing the majority groups of people. Cultural and ethnic diversity, however, bring many benefits to the teachers' training colleges as workplaces (Copeland, 1988). Culturally heterogeneous work groups can be creative and productive, take risks, and welcome new perspectives.

Individual empowerment, human rights, self-fulfilment, and mutual human reverence are fundamental values to promote in teacher education. International collaboration programs have capacity to foster the humanistic development. Evidently,

movement of professionals across national boundaries has helped improve the human condition and prospects for international understanding and peace (Fry & Thurber, 1989).

Cross-cultural collaboration process could be a two-, three-, or even four-dimensional phenomenon. While two persons with different nationalities are working together, they are not separated from their contexts. Researchers and teachers share their international experiences with their colleagues and the surrounding community. Vocational educators who, as an outcome of international collaboration, describe and analyze their experiences in writing contribute to educational process.

3 DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS

Intercultural education refers to "a large field that comprises the study of all content areas pertaining to the interaction between or among cultures" (Hughes 1983, 21). Individuals, groups, governments or other institutions could be involved in the interaction. According to Hughes (1983) the purpose of intercultural education is "to improve interaction between and among people and groups of different cultures through learning about other cultures and how to interact with other cultures in a respectful, non-exploitative way" (p. 22). Vreede (1992) introduced the concept of *multicultural* as a synonym for intercultural. The concept of *pluralist education* corresponds with intercultural and multicultural education which all are used relating the issues of fostering the unified society. Pluralist education addresses the power structure and discrimination in society.

Intercultural communication refers to communication between people from different cultures. *Intracultural communication* means communication with members of one's own culture. Variables operating when communicating interculturally are the same as when communicating intraculturally. Gudykunst (1991) stated that the process underlying intercultural and intracultural communication is the same because persons' stereotypes always affect communication. "Stereotypes, however, lead to ineffective communication more frequently when the person with whom we are communicating comes from another culture than when the person comes from our own culture." (p. x)

International education includes relations and interaction with representatives of another society with its own culture and life style. The purpose of international education is "to improve the solution of international problems through learning about those problems and the participants involved" (Hughes 1983, p. 22). Although intercultural education might be a logical prerequisite to international education, this paper focuses on international education of vocational teacher education faculty.

Pedersen (1988) claimed that *culture* exists within each person combining individuals' many different social roles to compose their internal identity. So it could be assumed that all supervision of student-teachers is multicultural. According to

Pedersen (1988) "culture, like a network of traits, is located within the persons. Like traits, culture provides a flexible disposition toward one or another perspective that changes from time to time, situation to situation, and person to person." (p. xi).

Pedersen (1988) differentiated three dimensions of culture: (1) Objective culture consists of the visible behaviours that are culturally learned and that can be objectively identified by persons within and outside a certain culture. (2) Subjective culture comprises persons' internalized feelings, attitudes, opinions, and assumptions that are difficult to verify. (3) A broader "social system" definition of culture covers the following variables:

- demographic variables such as age, sex, and place of residence;
- status variables such as social, educational, and economic levels; and
- affiliation variables that may be formal or informal memberships.

According to Wolman (1989) culture is generally to show: (1) The way a certain society lives. (2) The totality of manners, customs, values, of a given society, inclusive of its socioeconomic system, political structure, science, religion, education, art, and entertainment. (3) The intellectual aspects of life, such as science, art, and religion.

The concept of *cross-cultural* covers both international and intercultural. Cross-cultural is used as a synonym for international in this paper.

Awareness focuses on being conscious of something. Being conscious refers to the process of being aware or knowing through rational processes (Wolman, 1989). Cross-cultural development proceeds from an awareness of culturally learned assumptions to increased knowledge about relevant information in taking the right actions. Pedersen (1988) stated that awareness is the ability to accurately judge a cultural situation from both one's own and the other's cultural viewpoint. "The student should be able to describe a situation in a culture so that a member of that culture will agree with the student's perception" (p. 9).

Development of cross-cultural awareness is promoted through awareness, knowledge and skills. A prerequisite for cross-cultural awareness is to ensure that persons have accurate and proper attitudes, opinions, and assumptions about the culture. Knowledge refers to comprehension about a culture. Persons need to have skills that provide chances for interacting with people from the culture. Through awareness, assumptions of differences and similarities of behaviour, attitudes, and values are emphasized. Knowledge expands the amount of information about culturally learned assumptions. Assumptions and knowledge are clarified and tested in practice by cross-cultural skills learning (Pedersen, 1988). The approach that focuses on cross-cultural awareness development emphasizes recognition of one's own cultural bias before entering another culture. Adjusting the value systems of another culture is easier if a person understands his or her own values. As a conclusion, the following list of examples shows specifications of skills to develop for cross-cultural collaboration (Pedersen, 1988):

- ability to recognize direct and indirect communication styles;
- sensitivity to nonverbal cues;
- awareness of cultural and linguistic differences;
- interest in the culture;
- sensitivity to the myths and stereotypes of the culture;
- concern for the welfare of persons from another culture;
- ability to articulate elements of his or her own culture;
- appreciation of the importance of multicultural teaching;
- awareness of the relationships between cultural groups; and
- accurate criteria for objectively judging "goodness" and "badness" in the other culture (p. 9).

4 EDUCATIONAL MODEL FOR CROSS-CULTURAL AWARENESS

Educational models for developing cross-cultural awareness need to be dynamic, flexible, and process-centred because culture itself with all varieties is complicated and dynamic. Pedersen and Pedersen (1985) developed an open-ended model called a Cultural Grid. The purpose of the model is to help (1) explain the cultural aspects of a situation, (2) form hypotheses about cross-cultural differences, (3) train persons for culturally appropriate interaction, and (4) understand persons' and groups' behaviour in the light of learned expectations and values. The social system variables are matched in a personal and cultural orientation, which is shown in the Figure 1.

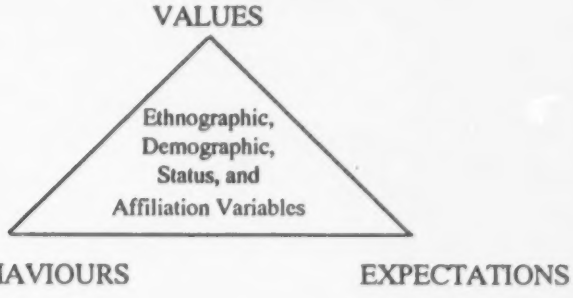

Figure 1. The Cultural Grid

Vreede (1992) stated that "individuals interact with other individuals having a culture, never with a culture" (p. 4). The approach of the Cultural Grid is based on the premise that culture is within every person combining individual features with collective variables. Culture is broadly defined including (a) social system variables consisting of

- demographic factors (age, sex, place of residence, and other),
- status factors (social, economic, educational, and other), and
- affiliation factors (formal and informal);

(b) ethnographic categories such as nationality, ethnicity, language, and religion. Culture is described as an interaction of personal and cultural variables that are constantly changing. Pedersen and Pedersen (1985) explained that "the Cultural Grid is a model that matches social system variables with patterns of behaviour, expectation, and value in a personal-cultural orientation to each event" (p. 67). Culture is so dynamic that it changes even for each individual from one situation to another. During the period of international collaboration, ability to identify individuals' personal-cultural orientations in particular situations through their behaviour and their meanings can be developed to which the analogy of the physical term of Grid refers.

Attitudes (e.g. prejudices) and stereotypes create expectations that often lead persons to misinterpret the messages received from people who are different and lead people who are different to misinterpret the messages they receive. The expectations regarding how people from other cultures and ethnic groups will behave are based on how they are categorized (Gudykunst, 1991). The use of social categories is not limited to the communication with people from different cultures and ethnic groups. People from one's own culture or ethnic group are also categorized, but the categories are different. By developing cross-cultural awareness, individuals become conscious of their patterns of categorizing.

As a result of committed cross-cultural communication and collaboration a person may develop a multicultural identity. A synthesis of the personal and social system variables described by the Cultural Grid contributes to frame a multicultural identity (Pedersen & Pedersen, 1985). The Cultural Grid integrates the cognitive variables of behaviour, expectations, and value with the social system variables that have shaped an individual's cultural identity. There are at least two essential aspects of the multicultural identity related to contexts: integrating one's own multicultural identity with the identity of others through managing culturally learned behaviours and expectations. The Cultural Grid Model might need further development to explain the process of developing multicultural identity.

5 KNOWLEDGE BASE FOR DEVELOPING CROSS-CULTURAL AWARENESS

The persons who are willing to go on working in the cross-cultural settings may find multiple chances to develop their personal skills. Collaborating and communicating with colleagues from another culture can develop persons' knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Internationalization is one aspect of professional excellence which could be created on a theory base proved through experiential learning. Concerning vocational education research, international linkage programs might provide new areas to its professions. A specific body of knowledge of international collaboration in vocational education may contribute to develop professions.

Fry and Thurber (1989) suggested knowledge foundations for the profession of international consulting and advising based on empirical work and literature review. Further, they suggested that knowledge areas of international collaboration might comprise basic, intermediate and advanced areas.

(a) The basic knowledge area consists of professional speciality, foreign language skills and cross-cultural communication. Professional speciality must be transferred and adjusted to the conditions of another nation which is possible through the ability of cross-cultural communication. According to Habermas (1970) the concept of communicative competence consists of genuine dialogue freed from domination, sensitiveness to nuances of nonverbal communication and awareness of cross-cultural variations in communication. Fluency in at least one foreign language helps appreciate diverse ways of thinking and using languages of other cultures (Fry & Thurber, 1989). Linguistic knowledge alone does not ensure smooth and effective communication with people from other cultures (Gudykunst, 1991; Mauranen, 1993). Misunderstandings in intercultural and interethnic encounters often stem from not knowing the norms and rules that guide people's communication from different nations.

(b) Intermediate knowledge areas include cultural area knowledge and literature, art of advising, and research or development project management. Culture-area knowledge refers to having cultural awareness of the geographic area where the international counterpart comes from or where one goes to work. A purpose of advising is to help a colleague to understand a partner's cultural background and meanings.

(c) Advanced knowledge areas comprise creating and maintaining relationships between international and national colleagues, negotiating skills, diplomacy, and evaluation. Diplomacy refers to positive and open attitudes, diplomatic tact and friendliness. Ability of negotiation includes persistence, creativity, listening, and ability to make viable compromises.

The following academic disciplines relate to those knowledge areas: the fields of vocational education, science of education, psychology, sociology, statistics, philosophy, humanities, political science, linguistics, anthropology, history, management science, international relations and international business. Establishing the functional knowledge-base of developing cross-cultural awareness can best be implemented through self-directed and individualized learning.

Vocational education researchers, teacher educators and teachers have a professional speciality that provides the basis for sharing of expertise. The expertise might include teacher education combined with occupational field, or specific research areas, or a subject area to teach. The speciality area of vocational education is defined

from each country's own starting points.

For educational purposes, developing cultural awareness could serve as a goal and a means. For instance, programs developed for promoting cultural awareness are means for developing teachers' and students' global orientation in their attitudes and actions. International collaboration through persons with multicultural skills may foster subject and occupational area development.

6 INTERNATIONAL AND INTERCULTURAL PROGRAM POSSIBILITIES IN VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Cultural awareness can be developed as well in the local as international settings. A variety of approaches in creating training programs for developing cultural awareness could promote individualized and self-directed learning. The following program examples are presented concerning the Finnish cultural context:

1. Establishment of international and intercultural connections: faculty exchanges, student teaching assignments and exchanges, staff development programs for teachers in other countries, and intercultural teams to plan activities for preservice teachers.
2. Nationwide intercultural programs: student teaching could take place in Sami areas, Swedish-speaking areas, among immigrants' communities, or just on the other side of Finland in very rural areas.
3. Studies abroad: ERASMUS (SOKRATES) and COMETT (LEONARDO) in Europe provide chances to study a year in another European country. Europe-centralism could be avoided if chances are extended to the other continents and the Third World countries.
4. International student teaching: one suggestion for establishing linkage programs between the Finnish and other nations' vocational teacher training colleges could focus on offering international student teaching opportunities.
5. Writing articles for refereed journals in English, Swedish, German etc. Finnish-speaking persons writing in English or Swedish and in German need to learn another cultural model of written discourse (Mauranen, 1993). Writing is a basic professional activity in higher education and least costly compared with other international programs.
6. Changing profiles of the vocational teacher education students concerning language, nationality, ethnicity, and race: so far it has been an exception if a teacher education student has belonged to a minority group in Finland.
7. Changes that individual teachers can make in their teaching practice and subject area to promote cross-cultural communication in education.

The four first-mentioned examples require a linkage agreement between collaborating institutes. Guidelines and conditions of exchanges and collaboration can be shown in the linkage agreement.

7 A CASE: ESTABLISHING AN INTERNATIONAL LINKAGE

It is easy to discuss international collaboration, but establishing a formal linkage between universities in two different countries requires much more than talk. Linking requires both institutions to make major time and resource commitments not only in establishing a successful linkage but in maintaining it as well. In order to describe how international linkages may be established, an example of a linkage between the Department of Research on Vocational Education located in the Institute for Educational Research at the University of Jyväskylä (UJ) and the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, College of Education, the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (VPI&SU) is presented.

The idea of establishing a linkage between the two institutions began to emerge during Johanna Lasonen's extended stay at VPI&SU while she completed a doctoral degree in Vocational and Technical Education. During this time period, she and Curtis Finch (her doctoral co-advisor) discussed on several occasions the benefits of international linkages. These general discussions and a mutual interest in international collaboration did not result in movement beyond general discussion until Dr. Lasonen returned to Finland and began employment at UJ's Institute for Educational Research. Fortunately, Dr. Finch had been previously involved in establishing and operating international linkages between VPI&SU and institutions in Chile, England, Venezuela, and the Dominican Republic. Based on his work in this area, he and a colleague at VPI&SU had established a framework for approaching the linkage process in a more systematic fashion (Finch & Crunkilton, 1991). This framework organizes the linkage development process into five components:

1. Identifying basic linkage considerations,
2. Examining linkage options,
3. Selecting a partner,
4. Establishing a formal linkage agreement, and
5. Maintaining the linkage (Finch & Crunkilton, 1991, 66).

Initial considerations associated with the UJ/VPI&SU linkage centred on potential institutional benefits and obligations that might be incurred. These items did not surface during early discussions but became significant topics of conversation when Drs. Lasonen and Finch shared information about the potential linkage with colleagues and administrators at their respective institutions. Representative of the questions raised at this point in the linkage process included: What will the linkage cost our institution in

the long term? Which people from our institution will be involved in the linkage? What will our institution gain from the linkage? These and other questions were discussed and documented for future consideration.

Next, various linkage options were considered. Typically, this involves giving consideration to country and institution selection with emphasis on potential compatibility. Since a linkage between UJ and VPI&SU was actually being considered at the time, there was no felt need to examine options in relation to other universities in other countries. Essentially, the task was made easier since UJ could view VPI&SU in relation to its needs and VPI&SU could do likewise. Additionally, the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä could be included in the linkage program.

Selecting a partner was also made easier since Drs. Lasonen and Finch had a reasonable knowledge of each other's institution. However, since VPI&SU officials wanted to gather first hand information about UJ, a fact finding visit was certainly in order. This visit occurred during the Fall of 1991 when Dr. Finch was invited to Finland to make presentations at a national congress and at UJ. Based on information gathered during his visit, it was decided to move ahead with the preparation of a draft linkage agreement and have officials at each institution provide their reactions.

With input from both institutions, a draft agreement was prepared. Linkage agreement content paralleled the areas suggested by Finch and Crunkilton (1989) which included (1) specification of linkage activities to be completed; (2) institutions' responsibilities for resources, facilities, health care, and participant housing and transportation; (3) provision for periodic mutual review and evaluation of activities established under the agreement; and (4) opportunities for consideration of additional agreements and mutual collaboration. This arrangement was chosen because it would enable the two institutions to move forward rapidly with implementing the agreement and stated activities but keep the linkage agreement open to possible amendments at a later date. In other words, it was felt the agreement must be sufficiently specific to set a framework for linking but also sufficiently flexible to add new joint activities as needed.

7.1 Successes Associated to the Linkage

The linkage agreement was signed by officials from both institutions in 1992, thus formally established an international tie between UJ and VPI&SU. But what has happened since then? In brief, a great deal has occurred. Since 1992, three different VPI&SU faculty members have each spent five to six weeks in Finland serving as visiting researchers and lecturers at UJ. Additionally, two VPI&SU doctoral students each spent five weeks as research assistants at UJ. And two UJ faculty have made brief visits to the United States to make presentations at national congresses and at VPI&SU. However, perhaps more significant has been the opportunity provided for faculty and students to collaborate with counterpart researchers. For example, a UJ faculty member and VPI&SU faculty member with a mutual research interest in gender equity related

to vocational education collaborated on a research study, presented their findings at conferences in Finland and the United States, and had their research published in several international journals. Of course, not all person-to-person linkages were this productive; but, for each link that was made, joint research occurred. Other benefits derived from the linkage included an increase in cultural awareness. Several participants commented that they had a greater understanding of and appreciation for different cultures. Others indicated that they had developed a much better understanding of how culture and context impact on the design and conduct of research. And finally, several persons commented that they had developed a greater sensitivity to persons from other cultures.

7.2 Lessons Learned from the Exchange Experience

In addition to the benefits derived from this exchange experience, several lessons have been learned about what can be done in the future to make linkages more successful. First, it is important to have a person at each institution assigned to coordinate the linkage. This person could be appointed early in the linkage process when basic linkage considerations are being identified or later in the process after the linkage has been established. If a person is not assigned to this task, communication and coordination between the institutions may become dysfunctional and the linkage may not survive. Second, assessment of the linkage program must be conducted on a regular basis. If the linkage program is not assessed, there is no way to tell what has been successful and what should to be changed. A thorough assessment can also help collaborating institutions to rethink current efforts and even redirect the linkage. And finally, it is important to involve as many people as possible in the linkage. This does not mean all faculty members need to travel to another country. Involvement may be done via e-mail or fax. Persons may share articles or research reports with each other. The opportunities for involvement are virtually limitless and the potential for positive payoff is great.

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DEVELOPING CULTURAL AWARENESS: PEDAGOGICAL FUNCTIONS OF WRITING

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ABSTRACT

Culver, S. 1994. Pedagogical functions of writing. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

For individuals to develop an awareness of the many cultures surrounding them, they must first understand themselves and how they fit into their own personal culture. A way teachers can use to help students develop this awareness and to broaden their knowledge in subject matter courses is to encourage students to write. These writings improve learning, enhance evaluation, and provide evidence about what occurs during the educational process.

Keywords: Writing during the educational process, cultural awareness and writing

1 INTRODUCTION

Traditionally in the United States, writing in the schools has been taught according to a set of rules called grammar. From the age of seven, when a student typically enters the first grade and the beginning of elementary school, following of the rules of grammar has been more important than creating meaning through writing. However, thanks to the influence of Britton (1975) and others, using writing to create and to make meaning has become an important part of language classes in most classrooms across the educational spectrum in the United States.

By the mid-1970s, at the University of California at Berkeley, another important change in writing instruction was occurring. Teachers and researchers there were beginning to emphasize the use of writing "across the curriculum" (Fulwiler, 1984). Their contention was that writing could be used in language classes but it could also be used to enhance learning in other subjects, including mathematics, physical sciences, social sciences, and home economics.

These two emphases - writing as process and writing as learning across the curriculum - have done much to change our perceptions of writing and its uses in our classrooms. Rather than use writing to practice grammar or even to practice communication skills, teachers have found that there are many pedagogical functions of writing.

2 WRITING ASSISTS IN SUBJECT-MATTER LEARNING

First, writing can be used to increase learning in the subject matter. There are many studies that indicate that students who write regularly about the material in their classes will learn that material better. At Radford University, we are lucky enough to have both a Writing Across the Curriculum program (WAC) and an Oral Communications Program. The first assists teachers across the university who want to use more writing assignments in their classes. In the last 12 years of this program, faculty in disciplines as diverse as dance and mathematics and computer science and education have participated in this program. The Oral Communications Program (OCP) is modeled after the Writing Across the Curriculum model and attempts to incorporate communication-intensive activities into classes across the campus. Though younger than the writing program, the OCP has served over 4,000 students and at least 40 faculty. An important part of the evaluation of this program are surveys and interviews with faculty and students. From this information, it is clear that participants believe that, not only are their communication skills improved, but so is also their knowledge of the subject matter. More informal evaluations of the WAC activities also provide this sense that writing about what is going on in the classroom helps students grasp the subject matter.

Writing to learn is an important area of inquiry in current writing research and a recent dissertation done by Thomas Ashworth (1992) showed that, with a sample of nursing students, knowledge of subject matter was increased by requiring more written work (journals, primarily) from the students. In creating a product, students (and teachers in their written responses) make the subject matter "real". They construct it with their pens (or computers) and exploit their knowledge or lack of knowledge. Another reason that writing improves subject matter knowledge is that the process forces writers to organize their thoughts and to demonstrate good thinking.

3 WRITING HELPS DEVELOP GOOD THINKING

There is reason to believe then that requiring writing of your students can help them grasp the subject matter, as well as improve their own facility with language. Writing causes students to reflect on what they know (or don't know) so it makes them consider how much they know on their own terms - not according to a teacher's test or a teacher's admonition in the classroom. This self-reflection is important pedagogically for a number of reasons. First, the simple act of writing about a topic is likely to increase student involvement in learning. Research studies have consistently demonstrated that the more students are involved in their own learning the more likely they are to retain information and be better thinkers.

Writing about something forces students to organize their information in order to present a cohesive document to an intended audience. Considerations about what elements to put first, on what characteristics to order elements, how to describe and elaborate on major points involve higher order thinking skills. These skills include synthesizing and bringing together discrete pieces of information and considering which is useful and which is not. These higher order thinking skills have been labelled problem-solving or critical thinking. When teachers, administrators, and the general public in the United States talk about which is more important - the development of subject-matter knowledge or the development of critical thinking skills - critical thinking skills are always favored over the learning of facts and information. Clearly, the separation between these two skills is not very clear, because it is difficult to imagine being able to think well without having any knowledge about a topic. Still, it is important to know that critical thinking skills are seen as more useful and necessary.

Through personal writing, students come to understand themselves within a particular subject matter context. In learning about themselves, students are more ready to learn about others. Thus, writing can be used as a basis for exploration into multicultural attitudes. Diverse writing assignments also provide all students an opportunity to express themselves within the context of their cultures. This expression is impossible on multiple-choice, machine-scored test instruments.

4 WRITING AS AN EVALUATION TOOL

The development of subject-matter learning and increasing critical thinking skills are two good reasons to emphasize writing in the classroom, no matter the discipline. Still a third reason, and in some ways the most important, for using writing in teaching and learning is that the written product can be used for evaluation purposes. This evaluation can occur on a number of levels. Teachers often use short essays or long papers to judge what students know. They provide an opportunity for teachers to check student learning. Written products may also provide evidence for qualification for entry into other educational or employment opportunities. Later, these written products may serve as summaries of information for students who wish to look back and review what occurred in a particular class.

The written products may also be used in a more holistic manner to evaluate an area of learning or a department or program. The written products provide a concrete example of student learning and this student learning may be used as one indicator of educational quality. It is a concrete way for education to meet responsibilities to the public and the state. It may be a way for teachers or programs to show the many things students are learning. This concrete information is better than simple anecdotal types of information that we often rely on too heavily. Collaborating with colleagues in the evaluation of student writing also helps us, as teachers, become more attuned to each other (Belanoff & Dickson, 1991). We can become more aware of our own grading biases as we discuss our evaluation criteria and methods with others.

5 PUTTING WRITING IN THE CLASSROOM

All these reasons would seem to justify the use of writing in any classroom, regardless of discipline. However, implementing writing can be time-consuming and an extra weight on the teacher and students if it is not incorporated smoothly into the framework of the class. Writing should be an integral element in the class, not simply an add-on segment. Writing to aid in student learning can take many forms. Students may keep journals or diaries of their learning and their reactions to different components of the course. Students may summarize sections or chapters of textbooks in their course. Students may be asked to write papers that compare and contrast different elements within the course. To get the maximum benefits from writing and to provide the most valid and reliable measure of student writing ability, several different types of assignments should be used (Odell, 1981).

Clearly consideration must be given to size of class, age level and experience of students, teacher's experience with writing, and the purposes of the class in designing what types of writing to use. In some classes in the United States, intensive writing is more likely to be used than in others. For example, classes on philosophy and in the social sciences have traditionally used writing more than have courses in vocational

education. Given the utility of writing as a learning tool, an important first step is to see if and how writing is used currently in a course as a department. The next steps include ways to infuse writing where appropriate.

5.1 Clear assignments

First of all, writing assignments must do what they are intended to do. The teacher may have an idea about why students are writing; the students may have another. The clearer the assignments are, the more likely they will be useful according to the three purposes we have outlined. Instruction should be clearly written or spoken, with unambiguous language. There is the story told in the United States about the former director of one of our governmental agencies. The former United States Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) director, J. Edgar Hoover, was reading a letter that his secretary had just typed. He did not like how the letter was formatted and so he wrote on the bottom of the letter, "Watch the border", and asked her to re-type it. The secretary did as she was told and then sent the letter off to all the top agents as was the custom. For the next two weeks, FBI agents were on special alert as they watched the borders of the country between Mexico and Canada.

To help reduce ambiguity in assignments, it is better to err on the side of over-specifying. Doing this will also make it clear that you know what you are really asking your students to do. Share your assignment with colleagues for their comments and suggestions. Try to do the assignment yourself or ask a willing fellow teacher to do it. You may discover that the task was not as clear as you thought. If other teachers do not understand the task, then students may also have a problem.

5.2 Amount of writing

Research has demonstrated that writing many short papers can be more beneficial to student learning than writing one long paper. Forcing students to write succinctly and summarize the main elements of something they have learned or are studying also contributes to those synthesizing skills that enhance critical thinking. Also with short papers, teachers may be able to provide more immediate feedback for more students. Each piece of writing, since it is shorter, will take less time to review. This sort of formative evaluation is necessary if students are to improve in their learning and their writing.

It may be difficult to deal with the extra load of evaluating student papers if no writing is now required. Besides being valid and reliable, any evaluation system must also be usable. It may therefore be necessary to adapt a system whereby random selection of grading must be done. For instance, teachers may require all students to write something every week but only review those writings every other week. Or, another system might be to randomly select different student's work each week. Students then get the benefits of writing about their learning and the teacher can reduce the extra load created by evaluation.

5.3 Use practical applications

Writing assignments that are clearly written are most useful if students see some practical benefit to them. Assignments should focus on situations that students may likely face in their lives or their careers. Having students write for a number of different audiences that they will need to interact with later in their lives provides useful experiences and makes connections between school and work more obvious.

Assignments that stress dealing with individuals "different" from self can also be a valuable application. Through reactions in writing, students are forced to face their own biases and prejudices. These can then be discussed and considered in light of the need to deal with many different cultures.

5.4 Grading of student writing

It should be clear to students and to the teacher how writing assignments will be evaluated. Whatever methods are used, it is important for the teacher to look for common strengths and weaknesses in student writing and comprehension of subject matter. These commonalities should be used to modify and build on subsequent lessons in the class. In this way, writing can enhance both the immediate learning of the student and the long-term learning of the student.

6 SUMMARY

In summary, including writing as a teaching and learning tool has many advantages. Writing about what they know or are trying to know helps students become more involved in their learning and allows them to see better what connections they need to make. The main disadvantage of this approach is the increased amount of time necessary for evaluation on the part of the instructor. This time, however, may be reduced through selectively evaluating student writing.

Despite problems of implementation, writing helps students see who they are within their own cultural situation. This beginning knowledge of self is a first step in exploring other cultures and values. The development of writing as a skill can thus lead to the development of writing as an awareness tool.

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CROSSCULTURAL AWARENESS: A NEW CHALLENGE TO VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN FINLAND

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ABSTRACT

Mutka, U., Niikko, A. & Rousi, H. 1994. Crosscultural awareness: A new challenge to the vocational teacher education in Finland. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

The main purpose of this investigative education project was to develop and widen student teachers' awareness of a holistic approach to learning, networking society, opening world and crosscultural thinking during their teacher education. The goals of the project were outlined for individual, collective and micro levels and concrete objectives were drawn from these general goals. The hermeneutic-phenomenological approach was used as the common theoretical framework and it focused on the holistic and qualitative perspectives. The didactic framework was built on flexible learning strategies and supported by individual and collective study programs.

Over 90 student teachers took part in this project started in September 1992. They studied the theoretical basis of the processes of individualization and socialization and continued with different assignments and groupwork projects. The project ended in the Spring of 1993. Individual discussions and an open seminar were arranged in the end of the project in order to assess the results.

The results were examined both on individual and collective levels. Evaluation data were collected by means of diaries, questionnaires, individual discussions and different project assignments. The evaluation of the project focused on process, output and follow-up.

The results indicated that most student teachers had advanced towards the aims of the project and that they saw international questions of responsibility in a new light. The students built up various networks. Some of them launched multicultural projects in their own schools.

Keywords: Vocational teacher education, crosscultural awareness, multidimensional approach

1 INTRODUCTION

For the Finnish society, the time after World War II has meant rapid economic growth and building up a Scandinavian welfare state. A consensus has been reached on major social issues: the Finnish society has been in many ways very homogeneous. Now, however, along with profound international changes these social, political and economic structures, considered stable and thus safe until recent years, are dissolving forcefully and partly violently round us. After a long, peaceful period of steady economic growth, also people in Europe have had to leave their homes, either of their own choice or with no choice at all, and seek prospects for a better life elsewhere.

In Finland, from which people have emigrated at all times, things have changed: the flow of emigration has now also an opposite direction. In spite of the current economic depression, Finland is becoming more attractive to immigrants. Along with this new immigration, the traditional homogeneity of our culture and society will gradually be diversified, which will bring along both new strengths and new social threats - how we relate to dissimilarity is becoming a central social issue. We must have courage to face both the good and the bad and those new social conflicts and problems these changes will bring about.

Although the scale of our own problems is still small when compared to the "old" countries with immigrants and foreign labor, we cannot ignore them. It may not be as easy as we would like to believe to share the ever shrinking resources of our society with "the others". For instance, the headlines of evening papers provide clear evidence of this. They use colorful language to describe the doings of different ethnic groups within the Finnish society.

These questions have become more prominent lately. A new record of registered immigrants earning their living in Finland was made last year. In total, over 33 000 permits to stay and nearly 16 000 work permits were granted. The trend has been very clear: while in 1990 there were 21 000 foreigners living in Finland, their number was 40 000 in 1992. In 1993 the number of immigrants is expected to rise up to 46 000.

The unsettled social situation in the former socialist countries is reflected on the immigration profile: most of the immigrants come from Ingria (Inkeri) and from the Baltic countries. Also a remarkable amount was immigrating to Finland from Sweden. More often than previously people were also coming from Central Europe.

These voluntary immigrants should not be mixed up with those who are asking for asylum and thus entitled to state support. The number of those asking for asylum in Finland, either for political or humanitarian reasons, was also a new record. But despite all publicity, their number was only 3 634. Most of them came from the crisis areas in former Yugoslavia.

Issues of how we meet social reality, a more heterogeneous society, ethnicity and everything related to it, demands a lot from all education. Our relation to foreign cultures, understanding and accepting dissimilarity is partly a matter of knowledge and

understanding, though education cannot solve all problems. Education as such is no panacea, but it can help when people are trying to find out the sense and meaning of life, if they have the courage to consider and face the issues from all different angles.

The internationalization of the world provides many different perspectives - both threatening and promising - which emphasize the question of everyday reality, which is intertwined with networks and internationalization and presents a challenge to teacher education. Dealing with these matters, a research-based education project has been established within Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä. In the project, the following issues have been taken into consideration: social challenges created by ethnic questions, student teachers' abilities to analyze trends and to make observations from various perspectives in relation to things and events around us. The project is going to be continued and developed further so that possibilities to approach the central (and often very problematic) questions of education for internationalization by means of training could be examined in a more versatile and critical manner.

2 BACKGROUND OF THE EDUCATION PROJECT

Traditionally, the functions of teacher education have been focused on examining and experimenting with the learning process on collective and individual levels, as well as on learning new skills that are controlled from outside. Various theoretical views on learning have been underlying education. The training has been characterized by its scientific orientation and by its organizational structures based on the fields of vocation, so that content areas have occupied a central position. Teacher education has been linked essentially with matters relating to schooling, education and competence in the subject matter. Student teachers have concentrated on supporting their students' individual or collective learning processes so that the framework has seldom been extended to the national or international level.

In the future, the results of teacher education must be evaluated more extensively in relation to global aims, so that individual, collective and global levels will integrate into a dynamic whole. When the challenges of this age are accepted, the following issues will receive greater emphasis:

1. Collective, creative and anticipating learning, versatility and flexibility of knowledge and skills, entrepreneurship and client orientation.
2. Extensive basic knowledge for many purposes and ability to co-operate simultaneously on many levels, i.e. micro, macro, and meso levels.
3. A shift from closed organizations towards learning, networking organizations and entering the outside world.
4. Readiness to analyze and cope with external expectations and at the same time to change and to develop active strategies for change.

In developing education, the essential change trends of the age have to be taken into account, so that teacher education defines and solves relevant problems. Some of the key questions may be:

- How could teacher education more effectively help to support the development of broad perspectives and assumption of responsibility for, e.g. matters implied by the principles of sustainable development?
- What kind of life style can form a basis for just and sustainable, global development and how could promoting this kind of life style be effectively supported?
- How could teacher education be developed in the direction where its fundamental content elements are clearly linked with meeting different cultures and their analysis in contrast to one's own culture so that students' awareness of their own national culture and its functions could be deepened and clarified in this process?
- How could teacher education be developed so that it would integrate in a flexible way into teacher education given elsewhere in the world? Can training strengthen one's connections to his/her sphere of activity, e.g. by joining the networks and organizations of various business and work life organizations?
- In teacher education, how could one develop and experiment with more and more versatile, flexible and opening structures and strategies of student teacher guidance implied by them? An example of this kind of strategy could be a study project that is research oriented and based on a reflective, evaluative approach.

3 STARTING POINTS

The questions above directed the education project arranged in the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä. This project, which was based on an investigative approach, started in autumn '92 and ended in spring '93. The education project formed a complex system, where individual and collective cultural environment, as well as the national and macro levels were seen as simultaneous spiral processes within each other. At the centre of the system (see Figure 1, App. 1) is a learning individual and an effort to expand his/her personal limits and to broaden his/her awareness towards a holistic approach of learning, networking society and the opening world. In order to face the open world successfully, broader and deeper cultural awareness is indispensable. It was inherent in the education project to make people aware of the idea that responsibility for global issues is shared by all members of human society and that education has a central role in this process.

The starting point of the project in terms of content can be summarized in the form of following questions:

1. How can it be ensured that the ability to innovate and the ability to be autonomous will constantly be emphasized as conditions for professional activities?

2. How are creativity, flexibility, entrepreneurship and client orientation materialized within vocational activities and education?
3. In what way can internationalization and cultural awareness become a natural part of vocational activities and education?
4. How can we effectively support the increasing building of networks across national boundaries within vocational education?
5. How can we effectively match the continuing evaluation of the results of one's own activities with the challenge of presenting an effective and active public image, in order to enhance the quality of learning within vocational education?
6. How can we effectively promote the development work that makes the teachers and the students of vocational institutes more active in defining the new outlines of vocational education, and makes them more actively discuss, develop, experiment and produce research information?

4 GENERAL GOALS

The goals of the project were outlined for individual, collective and macro levels (see Figure. 2, App. 2).

1. On the individual level, the target was a learning individual and an effort to expand his/her personal limits and to broaden his/her awareness in the direction of a learning institution, networking society and the opening world. The goal was to develop students' views and ways of operating from mechanical work patterns controlled externally towards an investigative and reflective approach.
2. On the collective level, the aim was to develop the learning institution towards opening networks. The goal set included a shift from a self-sufficient, imitative approach towards individual competence as well as building up multilevel networks.
3. On the macro level, the aim was the idea about developing, open society and entering the world, and also new global thinking that derives from reassessment of the New World Order. The goal was to shift from narrow responsibility and life style towards broader crosscultural awareness and global responsibility.

The following goals in terms of student teacher's qualifications were derived from the general aims of the training project:

1. To develop reflective thinking of the student teachers participating in the project.
2. To develop the participants' abilities for collective work.
3. To develop the participants' abilities for creating networks.
4. To broaden the participants' ecological awareness.
5. To promote the participants' global commitment and sense of responsibility.

6. To develop the participants' visions in relation to far reaching issues, e.g. consideration of the New World Order and its consequences.

5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical starting point of the education project was based on a hermeneutic-phenomenological approach, where the whole is seen through the concept of an open circle. An integral part of the project was the idea about dynamic, heuristic quality, which means that a phenomenon is regarded as a multidimensional part of a complex whole. The circularity of the framework puts an emphasis on a holistic and qualitative point of view, which can be seen, e.g. as lack of exact quantitative categorizations. The underlying framework emphasizes that all ideas, processes, persons and objects have several meanings and that they can be examined from many different viewpoints. In this way, the holistic qualitative meaning and nature of a phenomenon can be reached more properly. This kind of approach underlines the role of intention and effort when it is assessed what we see in an object.

Within this framework the concept of teaching is regarded as something that must be constantly defined as the society, work life and the whole world keep changing. Because of the conflicting phenomena, student teachers have to face the challenge to reflect on their aims on many dimensions. It is a matter of being aware of oneself as a teacher and of actively defining one's own activities.

As a didactic framework, the concept of flexible education was emphasized, which was considered subordinate to the concept of flexible learning. Through flexible learning studying becomes more sensible, which was regarded as an essential criterion for the concept of flexible education. The flexibility of learning is also linked with those conscious choices a student makes related to the progress of his/her studies. Teacher education was seen as one phase in the process of a student's life, which in practice calls for a personal, individual study plan.

The framework of the education project in terms of content was based on the assumption that education can promote just and sustainable development in the world. Just and sustainable development means harmony between ecological processes, biological diversity and sufficiency of natural resources. Furthermore, the philosophy of just and sustainable development comprises the vision that welfare on the globe should be realized more justly than it is at present.

6 TARGET GROUP AND REALIZATION

The target group of the education project comprised 98 student teachers from the fields of fashion and beauty treatment, service and special fields, and social work. The project

was started in September 1992 by studying the theoretical basis of the process of individualization and socialization. The project assignments have approached the questions pertaining to multiculturalism from very many perspectives. During October and November the students wrote reports, which were related to the evaluation of their own professional development and gave depth to the theoretical starting points. From October until March the students worked in project groups, the themes of which they had chosen themselves for their program of study.

In addition to four educators, the project was guided by external experts from Finland and abroad. The pedagogical idea behind the project was that in this way the students could integrate their pedagogical studies into one whole and also build up networks outside the Teacher Education College. During the last quarter of the project, individual discussions and an open seminar were arranged in order to assess the results of the project. In addition to written reports, the project assignments have included video shows, poetry recitals, art happenings, exhibitions, performances, press meetings, street interviews, open day events etc. Throughout the project the main didactic principles were dynamism, creativity, flexibility, context-dependence, sensitivity, process, and continuous self-evaluation of the quality and results of one's activities.

7 EVALUATION

Evaluation formed a central part of guidance in the education project and it was practiced at all stages. The purpose was to reflect on one's own activities and thinking. It was essential that the student teachers took a personal stand in the matters discussed, e.g. by comparing their views and stating reasons for their own way of acting and thinking. The main yield of the project consisted of different productions and written project works, which served as concrete tools in carrying out and assessing the project.

During the project, evaluation was mainly concerned with process, output and follow-up. It was mainly evaluation of subjective experiences, meanings and reactions. Evaluation data were collected by means of diaries, questionnaires and individual discussions.

In the process evaluation, the focus was on supporting the learning process of individuals and groups, as well as on assessment along the lines of the goals set. In the guidance situations of individuals and small groups, the matters discussed were: to what extent the project could help the student to reach his/her own development targets; what kind of change the students had experienced in their own way of acting and thinking and how it had shown in the small groups. The evaluation of output focused on the impact experienced during the project on individual, collective and macro levels. The follow-up evaluation concentrated also on long term effects and macro level, i.e. on external evaluation. This will be done later by means of delayed evaluation. Moreover, the evaluation data will be used in the development work of teacher education in

general, along the lines of a holistic approach and versatile didactic solutions, discussed both in national and international contexts.

8 RESULTS

On the individual level, most students felt they were committed to and advanced towards the aims of the project. One concrete form of this was the fact that many students have plans for continued studies. Teacher education was seen as a part of continuously extending professional competence and eventually of a student's whole course of life. Some students characterized how the responsibilities of a teacher were seen in a new light: "Now I have really understood that teacher education is a beginning or a license to start off". "The future of the world and teaching is tightly bound together, and I, as a teacher, have a great deal of possibilities to affect the world of tomorrow".

On the collective level, the students built up various networks with many organizations nationally and internationally utilizing, for instance, electronic information channels. Some participants launched projects in their own schools, which concentrated on multicultural issues and internationalization around the following topics:

- *Meeting of different cultures in social work* analyzed the relations to our own minority groups by including the representatives and the cultural features of the minorities in the study courses with as much versatility as possible. (Enclosure 1)
- *An artistic learning process in a cultural encounter* approached the views and learning processes of four visual artists from different cultures through the idea of cultural encounters. (Enclosure 2)
- *Multiculturalism in adult education* is a theme that included mapping the problems of immigrant students and questions related to how we face dissimilarity and deviation. These questions were considered both from the perspective of immigrants and the Finnish culture.
- Under the theme *Meeting the old people's needs for help in different cultures* it was analyzed how the old people from different cultures adapted themselves to the Finnish culture and those conditions and questions this adaptation process brings up.
- The theme *An Ingrian as a return immigrant* included analysis of the narratives by the Ingrians and sounding the attitudes in the Finnish society.
- The project work *Hunger* studied "the world's hunger" and the mechanisms of economic exploitation that cause it.
- In the project work *I and the world* the aim was to implement global thinking in the institute at a scale possible in school conditions.
- The project work *International aspects in practical studies* analyzed the questions brought along by practical studies within a foreign culture. The analysis targeted on the experiences of students who were doing their practical studies mainly in

the Baltic countries and in the area of St. Petersburg.

- The project work *Towards a nonviolent culture* studied the nature of Hinduism from the perspective of Gandhism. The same issue was also approached from the existentialistic and Marxist points of view using the restoration of human rights to the oppressed as the starting point and the goal.
- The project *An immigrant in the society of changing information* focused on the development of the skills of self-direction during the training for immigrants and the problems faced in this process.

9 CONCLUSIONS

International and crosscultural issues occupy a central position in the vocational education and we need new ways to educate our teachers to work in different situations and with people of different ethnic groups and cultures. By means of the project, we developed and built a model of training that supports student teachers' crosscultural thinking and awareness. By means of the evaluation data of the project we tried to foresee the problems that will arise during a study program with emphasis on the complexity of phenomena and their international dimensions. This project model can be used not only in teacher education but also in vocational institutes.

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APPENDIX 1

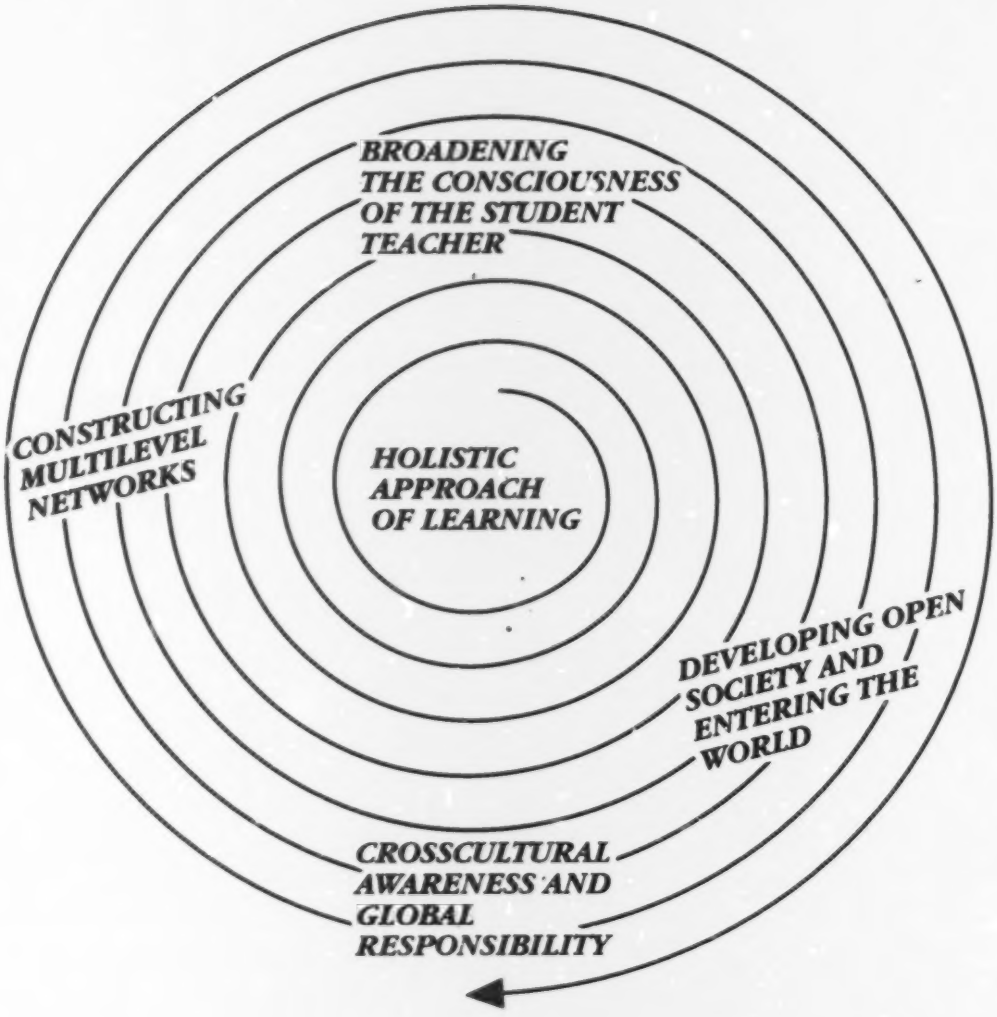

Figure 1. Hermeneutical spiral of vocational teacher education (Rousi 1992)

APPENDIX 2

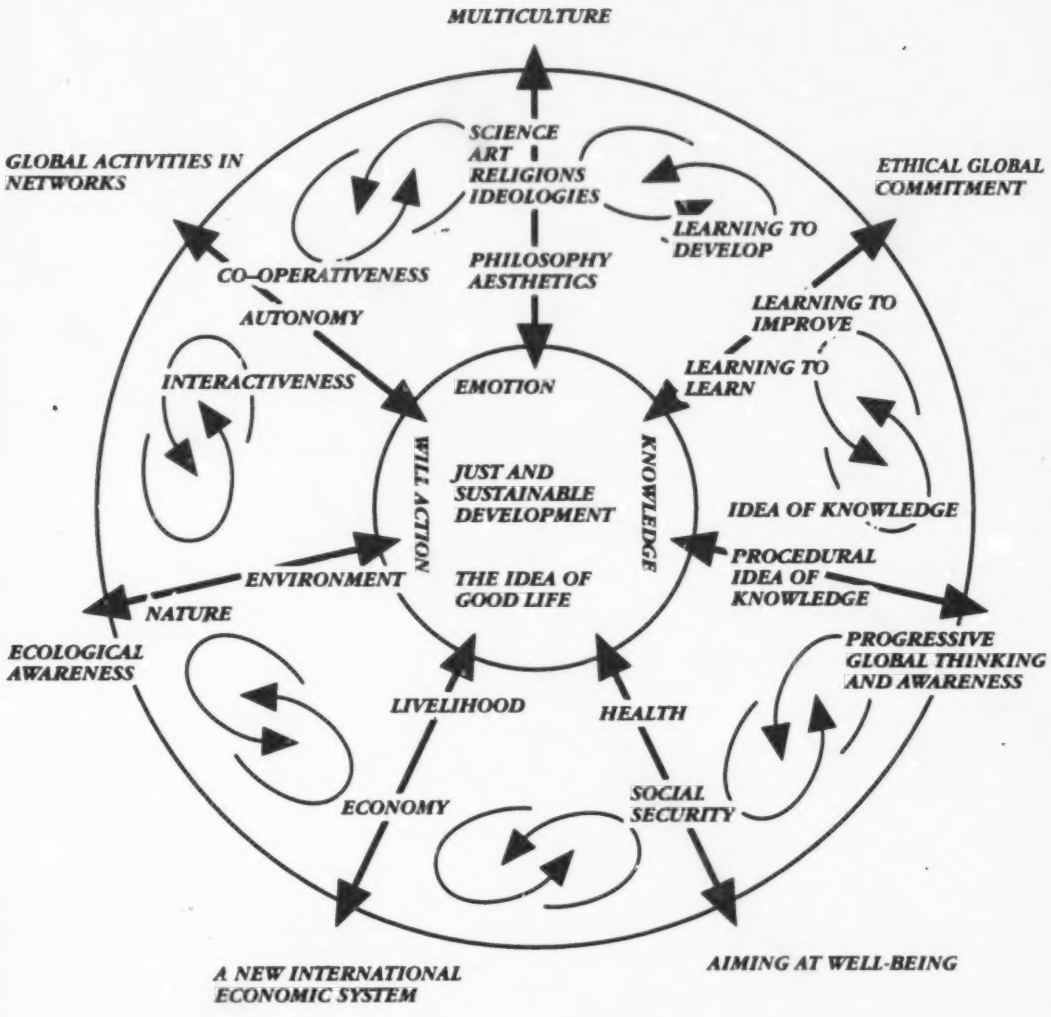

Figure 2. The dimensions of the research-based project

ENCLOSURE 1

Abstract

Grönroos M., Kiikola-Wartiainen M., Pamppunen S. & Salmi K. 1993. Kulttuurien kohtaaminen sosiaalialan työssä: Kokeilu kulttuuripätevyyden edistämiseksi ammatillisessa koulutuksessa [Meeting of different cultures in social work: An experiment to promote cultural competence in vocational education]. Harjavallan sosiaali- ja terveydenhuolto-oppilaitos. Julkaisusarja B (Tutkimuksia ja selvityksiä), B:1/1993.
ISBN: 952-9645-08-2.

In this teaching experiment report, which is also the authors' thesis for a degree in teacher education in the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä, the main themes are: intercultural relationship in the Finnish society, cultural competence as a part of vocational competence in the field of social work and the possibilities to promote cultural competence in the vocational secondary education. These issues are considered both theoretically and on a practical level, in the form of a teaching experiment.

The first part of the report focuses on the dimensions of culture and lifestyle using mainly terminology of sociology, anthropology and social policy. Specific attention has been paid to the status of Finnish minority cultures and their possibilities in Finland at the present and in the future. In this report the future Finland has been outlined as a multicultural country, i.e. culturally varied and pluralistic, where cultural exchange (regarded as acculturation) is considered a desirable form of fruitful interaction between different cultural groups.

The latter part of the report describes the teaching/learning experiment of *Meeting of different cultures in social work* which was carried out in the Harjavalta Institute for Social Work and Health Care in spring 1993. Four student groups (about 80 students in total) participated in the project and it covered about one study week. The project aimed, by means of various studying methods, to develop such comprehensive vocational competence that includes, for instance, abilities to understand intercultural relationships in the society, to understand and appreciate the meaning of a multicultural society especially from the social work's point of view, and readiness to work with and for people whose culture and lifestyle are different. The goals of the project were also to make cultural competence a part of comprehensive vocational competence in the social field and both to widen the cultural awareness in general and to concentrate on some specific cultures more extensively.

The key term of the project, cultural competence, was regarded as a heuristic term that due to its qualitative nature can mainly be considered - from the qualification point of view - as both a general (educational) and a vocational qualification. Our view is that cultural competence is based on comprehensive vocational skill, but it is also justified to think that cultural competence actually belongs to comprehensive vocational skill.

Keywords: Cultural competence, acculturation, accommodation

100

ENCLOSURE 2

Abstract

Raiski, Tuula-Leena 1993. An Artistic Learning Process In a Cultural Encounter.

The report is a description of a learning project where the focus is on an art-oriented learning process in a cultural encounter. The project was based on an assumption about the significance of artistic creativity and sensitivity in cultural understanding. The approach used has been both qualitative and creative. The theoretical framework has been completed with an experiment which was carried out during the Seminar on Educational Effectiveness at the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä in May 1993. Four artists from different cultures attended this experiment. A preparatory process preceded the actual process.

In theoretical studies, essential factors for cultural understanding in this artistic learning process have proved to be the nature of the communication and the encounter, the experiences and the holistic impressions, the artistic creativity as a means of finding universal dimensions, authentic dissimilarities, cultural dialogue and humanity.

The multicultural art experiment was based on a multidimensional process which had elements from artistic creativity and sensitivity and from interaction in general. The most influential phases in this experiment seemed to be the functional process of an artistic production and the creative interaction. The creative interaction proceeds from a mutual interest and an implicit agreement towards a rising authentic dissimilarity and a sense of togetherness. A cultural encounter can also be seen as one dimension in the discussion concerning similarity and dissimilarity.

Keywords: Art, culture, understanding, learning process, reality, view of the world

INTERNATIONALIZATION: AN INTEGRAL PART OF PEDAGOGICAL DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Rousi, H. 1994. Internationalization: an integral part of pedagogical development of vocational teacher education. Reports from the Vocational Teacher Education College of Jyväskylä 8.

The internationalization of vocational teacher education is based on the view that vocational education is multidimensional. This means that the starting point and goal of the internationalization scheme is to utilize multiculturalism in a positive fashion. The central issues of internationalization have been approached from the perspective of content-related principles underlying vocational education, and from the viewpoints of theory and practice that promote multiculturalism. The most essential criterion when assessing how successful the internationalization of teacher education has been, is to what extent we have managed to combine the multiple dimensions of wide-ranging practical and theoretical activities with vocational learning.

Keywords: Internationalization, multicultural awareness, multidimensional orientation

1 INTRODUCTION

The process of internationalization, which makes prevailing structures open, dissolve and network in a new fashion, is a major challenge for the contents and functions of vocational teacher education. The fundamental idea underlying internationalized teacher education is to integrate pedagogical development into the multidimensional theory of vocational teacher education. Internationalization means that student teachers' and their educators' awareness is broadened towards multiculturalism and global responsibility.

Internationalization means qualitative, pedagogical development and evaluation of vocational teacher education, where the ultimate criterion is how multiculturalism is utilized in a positive way at the individual, community and macro levels.

2 PROMOTION OF MULTICULTURAL, GLOBAL AWARENESS AND RESPONSIBILITY

Multiculturalism and global awareness have become more important in education, because also in Finland interaction between people from different cultures has become more frequent in all contexts. Teachers and teacher educators are key persons in this process, since they can, through their own work, affect what kind of nature that cross-cultural interaction will have. Education can have an essential impact on whether Finnish society will become multicultural in a positive sense.

According to Gladdish (1979) the development of multicultural awareness is based on universality of human rights, tolerance and respect for minority cultures even if they are different from the main culture (p. 165). Gladdish defines multiculturalism as a whole that comprises those communities whose members consider that they have a clearly distinguishable group identity of their own. In spite of different cultural group identities they are able to work on the basis of equality for their own or their community's interests within the prevailing sociopolitical framework.

In a multicultural context, a specific culture can change due to internal and external influence. According to Taylor (1979) whether cultural features are preserved or changed, depends on how wide the original cultural gap is, on the traditional and present practicality of the cultural features and on the community's resources to preserve and develop the culture of its own.

In order to become conscious of other cultures we must understand our own culture. When we realise that we follow unwritten rules of our own culture, we can see such rules also in the lives of people from different cultures. It is not a matter of equality or inequality, one being right and the other being wrong. Each culture in the world has its own, justifiable approach to different situations in the life. Different cultures are of equal value: it is rather a question of different view of life. This attitude is a good basis

if we wish to be understood in a new environment (Alho et al. 1989, 75).

The term *multicultural awareness* is close to *metacultural awareness*. By metacultural awareness Skutnabb-Kangas (1988, 232) refers both to the knowledge of the differences and similarities between various cultures, and to the ability to analyse them verbally. Monocultural people have low metacultural awareness. This refers to the finding that those who have no contacts to other cultures think that the manifestations of their own culture are the best. From the multicultural viewpoint, it seems that evaluation and tolerance of other cultures is then based on the internal perspectives of one's own culture without knowledge about the specific features of other cultures. Metacultural awareness can help to become conscious of one's own culture, which in turn enhances the development of multicultural awareness. The problem with monoculturalism is that the relationship to one's own culture is taken for granted.

Multicultural awareness as a starting point for vocational teacher education means promoting intercultural integration. In vocational education and teacher education the idea has to be fostered that, as a professional, one needs to be capable of taking the customs and values of other cultures into account. Multicultural awareness at its best means that people from different cultures can tolerate each other's values and customs as equals even if they do not share them. Thus, also a good professional is tolerant and shows respect for different cultures and life styles of others. In this way he/she also acts for the benefit of the multicultural society.

3 PEDAGOGICAL KEY QUESTIONS IN THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF VOCATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Student teachers and their educators are investigators and developers of their own work. During the process of teacher education they elaborate their views and create their own theory about themselves as teachers. The internationalization program of the Vocational Teacher Education College must help both the students and their educators to include the elements of global awareness and multiculturalism in their own theories they use in the analysis of learning.

To start with, we must analyse the development trends in our society and our world at present and include a future-oriented perspective in the teacher education process. For the enhancement of multicultural awareness, it is essential to what extent we manage to combine the views of vocational education, teaching and learning with this global, holistic and multidimensional framework.

The central issues in the internationalization of vocational teacher education can be approached from both the perspectives of contents and functions. The dimension of contents culminates in the following questions: "How to summarize the principles underlying vocational teacher education?" and "What kind of teacher education theory supports best the deepening of multicultural awareness?" As far as the functional

dimension is concerned, the key question is: "How can broadening of multicultural awareness be promoted at the level of educational activities?"

3.1 How to summarize the content-related principles underlying the internationalization scheme of vocational teacher education?

The main goal and guiding principles in the internationalization of vocational teacher education can be reduced into the ideas of multicultural awareness and global responsibility (see Fig.1, App. 1). These guiding principles are close to the recommendations concerning educational policy given by UNESCO 74:

1. **The principle of integration:**
   The international dimension is included in all forms and stages of teacher education. (Integrating the international objectives into a natural and functional part of teacher education becoming a part of an international education process).
2. **The principle of understanding and respecting different cultures:**
   Underlying the internationalization scheme is the aspiration to uderstand and respect all people, their cultures, education, values and lifestyles. At the background there is the idea of sustainable and just development.
3. **The principle of a multilevel dialogue:**
   During teacher education an emphasis is put on a continuous dialogue at individual, community, national and international levels.
4. **The principle of a multidimensional approach:**
   The significance of multicultural awareness is constantly increasing in the world that is becoming more international both at micro and macro levels. The internationalization scheme is based on a multidimensional, holistic view that takes different dimensions of life into account.
5. **The principle of global responsibility:**
   The concept of global responsibility comprises increasing awareness both of human rights and of responsibilities at all levels.
6. **The principle of international solidarity and multicultural co-operation:**
   Global responsibility and multicultural awareness in teacher education are based on international solidarity and multicultural co-operation. Multicultural awareness and global responsibility in teacher education also include a functional dimension, readiness to take part in solving upcoming problems at all levels.

3.2 What kind of teacher education theory supports best the deepening of multicultural awareness?

The underlying view on teachers as investigators and developers of their own work takes a more concrete shape during the process of teacher education, as the students compose their own "scripts" on what it means to be a teacher. The guiding questions

used in the teacher education process may cover, for instance, the following points of view:

- What are the most prominent changes at sight in our present society?
- In what kind of era are we living now, and what kind of prospects there are for vocational teacher education in the near future?
- How do I see the biggest challenges for vocational education? What kinds of specific challenges will there be if the principles of internationalization described above are used as a starting point?
- What kind of issues will the underlying principles bring up at the levels of guidance of education process, and of educational structures and forms?
- What kind of teacher education and learning process should there be if the questions above are used as a basis?

These questions require a lot from the theory of teacher education. The theory of vocational teacher education needs to be open, multidimensional, manysided, dynamic and comprehensive. The teacher's profession is becoming increasingly diverse, both in terms of its contents and of its societal context.

The theory of teacher education adopted for the internationalization scheme needs to support critical, multidimensional and self-reflective thinking of those involved in the education. For instance, ecological, cultural and economic dimensions are important elements. At the level of actions, interactive skills and capability to create multiform networks are highlighted in particular. The value basis for multicultural awareness and global responsibility can be reduced into such concepts as ethical commitment, cause-and-effet orientation, and responsibility for the well-being of the future generations. The values underlying the theory of teacher education will become more central because ethical issues are gaining more emphasis in the teacher's profession.

The dynamism of teacher education theory underlying internationalization means a continuous dialogue between historical and future perspectives. Multidimensionality and causal orientation as a basis for teacher education refer to a holistic approach that analyses teacher abilities required in the future.

In vocational teacher education the value of theory is determined at the level of societally responsible activity. Scientific knowledge is not considered as inherently more valuable than experiental or practical knowledge. The idea about practical knowledge underlying internationalization culminates in the flexible integration of knowledge, skill and value basis, and in the continuous dialogue between theory and practice.

3.3 How to promote broadening of multicultural awareness during teacher education process?

On the one hand, an essential basis for increasing multicultural awareness is the notion that processes at individual, community, national and macro levels are simultaneous and take place embedded within each other. On the other hand, there is a tendency to integrate the levels of thinking, values and emotions, and activity into one whole.

Metsälä (1989) has made the development of awareness within education process more tangible by emphasizing the following aspects:

- Strengthening the multicultural knowledge base by obtaining versatile information about different cultures.
- Reflecting on one's own values and attitudes in relation to other cultures.
- Learning to know the behavioural differences between various cultures.
- Training actual interaction in real life situations with people from different cultures.
- Improving language studies. To get to know a culture, the language is necessary.
- Understanding in relation to cross-cultural communication, and study of various communication theories and cross-cultural communication.

4. TANGIBLE STEPS OF THE INTERNATIONALIZATION SCHEME

The essence of international activities during the academic year 1994-95 has been outlined in the form of three main areas of action and further supportive actions.

First, in autumn 1994, an international teacher education program in English will be launched with about 40 student teachers admitted to the Vocational Teacher Education College. The education in the program will be oriented towards project assignments and research. Thus, it will be essential to meet the various individual needs for education, to support the students' own internationalization efforts, and to build on the students' earlier knowledge and skills.

Secondly, the international dimension will be more clearly integrated with all education given in the Teacher Education College. The purpose is to support the students' international contacts, e.g. by utilizing e-mail and various international simulation programs based on electronic connections.

Thirdly, the internationalization of vocational schools will be supported by giving continuing education in the Vocational Teacher Education College, where an internationalization program has been developed under the title of *teachers create networks, schools become international*. The idea of this program is to help vocational teachers create networks that are occupationaliy relevant so as to lend support to the internationalization of their schools.

The central supportive actions for international activities during academic year

1994-1995 have been defined firstly, as participation in various international co-operation programs:

1. **Participation in the ERASMUS program**
   Carrying out the student/teacher exchange plans of the ERASMUS ICP program (International Teacher Education in Integrating Europe) in co-operation with the Department of Teacher Education, University of Jyväskylä. The setting up has been designed following the practice of the previous year. The objective is to exchange six students reciprocally with the University of Sunderland and to send two students to Spain, to Palma and Granada.

2. **Participation in the NORDPLUS program**
   This program seeks to study the Nordic dimension of vocational teacher education and to extend pedagogic co-operation in vocational teacher education in Scandinavia. The other partners in the current NORDPLUS program are vocational teacher education colleges in Oslo, Copenhagen and Stockholm.

3. **Participation in the ASPRO training project of UNESCO**
   The participants in this UNESCO program are schools that wish to foster the teaching of internationalism according to the principles of UNESCO's recommendation. The UNESCO schools comprise a global network of schools of all forms and levels. The recommendation by UNESCO that deals with education towards international understanding, co-operation and peace, and respect for human rights, is close to the principles underlying the internationalization scheme of the Teacher Education College.

4. **Co-operation with the Baltic countries and the neighbouring regions of Russia**
   Presently, the Vocational Teacher Education College is engaged in many co-operation projects in the regions near Finland. These projects can be utilized especially as training opportunities for student teachers. There is also a separate project that seeks to promote the development of basic and further education for social work teachers in Estonia by using Finnish expertise on Estonian terms.

The second way to support international activities is to participate in international organizations for co-operation and that the educators take part in international conferences. The third supportive field of action is producing multinational joint publications and encouraging students and teachers to write articles for international publications.

5 EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR INTERNATIONALIZATION

For the assessment of how successful internationalization has been, it is crucial to know to what extent it has served the qualitative pedagogical development of teacher education. Then the evaluation criterion would be two-fold: First, in what way multiculturalism is positively utilized at the individual, community and macro levels; and second, to what degree the awareness of student teachers and their educators has broadened towards multiculturalism and global responsibility. When evaluating the starting points of internationalization, it is essential to pay attention to how successfully we manage to combine the perspectives of vocational education, teaching and learning with the global and multidimensional, theoretical and practical activities.

To illustrate what all this might mean in practice, I would like to quote Ms. Eileen Tiffin-Clark, who tells about her own study experiences as an ERASMUS exchange student in spring 1994 as follows:

> *"When I was given confirmation that I would be taking part in a student cultural exchange to Finland, I was asked by Sunderland University, England, to submit a short resume about myself and my academic & professional aims and interests, to be forwarded to my exchange destination. This is what I wrote:*
>
> > *I am interested in a holistic approach to learning, whereby institutions provide a supportive environment in which different learning styles and teaching methods can be explored. I support issues such as assertiveness, personal transferrable skills; communication skills, and co-counselling being introduced into university education...*
>
> *When I arrived at the Vocational Teacher Education College here in Jyväskylä, I felt after the first day of discussion with tutors that I, and my ideas had arrived at just the right place and time. That initial impression has stayed with me and now, towards the end of my visit I feel at times overwhelmed by the potential for learning and sharing which informs and inspires the college's educational discourse and practice. As well as hearing and seeing ideas in action, I have received new frameworks of meaning to the concepts I came with, which have in turn broadened my thinking regarding the development of learning and the holistic context. My original understanding of holistic teaching and learning seemed narrow in comparison to the vision presented to me at this institution. I was concerned with attending to the wholeness and entirety of the person and the learning process, of informing the heart, as well as the head of the individual. Now I was hearing about*

a larger dimension which applied the holistic approach to multi-cultural global concerns.

I am now aware of the gaps in my thinking as a student and as a teacher and am grateful for the opportunity to become involved in the Multidimensional Co-operative Project of Vocational Teacher Education."

The yield of internationalization is assessed through the question: "What kind of quality the process produces?" An internationalizing institution must be an open system in nature. According to Banathy (1991) this means that the institution

- collaborates with many systems in its surroundings
- is able to transform itself according to the challenges of the surroundings
- finds new aims and fields of activity in its surroundings
- operates in constantly changing conditions, amid uncertainty and ambiguity
- operates creatively in complex and ambiguous situations which constitute its everyday life
- is a learning organisation: is capable of evaluating and developing its ways of learning, processing swiftly more and more information, distributing information widely, and converting information into knowledge shared by the organisation
- keeps developing new ways of self-evaluation
- realizes that continuous cognitive reformation requires two-way development within the system, specialization and integration

Following this view, internationalizing quality work cannot be done in a closed system. A developing institution needs manifold contacts with the outside world: the networks for information, contacts and co-operation constitute a vital basis for its development.

Internationalization means continuous development of the institution. It is a question of a dynamic process towards multicultural awareness. Essential for the success of that process is how the aims and actions can be balanced: spontaneity and openness on the one hand, system and fixed objectives on the other. Too strict planning does not yield the best results in rapidly changing conditions, whereas too little planning and too heavy an emphasis on the spontaneous process is likely to disperse the activity through too many areas of interest.

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APPENDIX 1

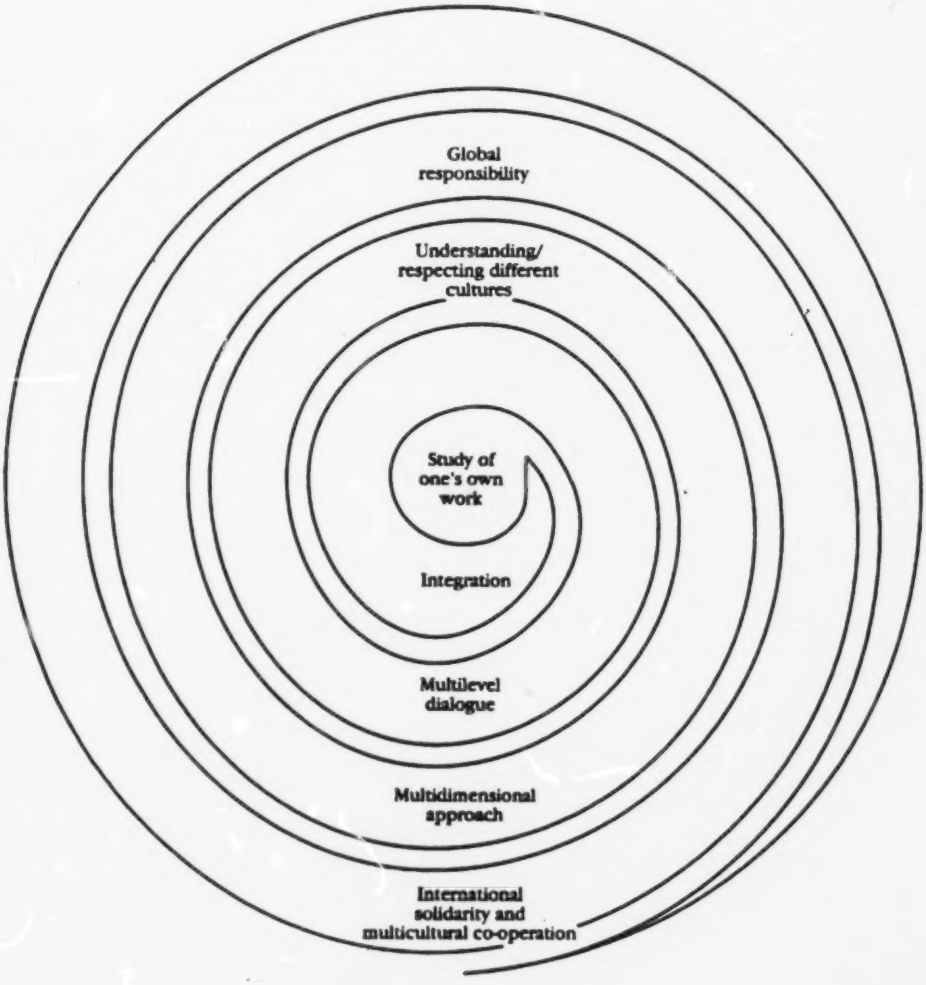

Figure 1. The principles underlying the internationalization of vocational teacher education

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